The Nation.

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The Week.

The Panama Canal treaty was ratified on Tuesday. This is a new success for Secretary Hay, perhaps the most important of his career. It required a deal of wisdom and tact to steer between the reefs of Colombian susceptibility and American jingoism. The Colombians are sensitive on the subject of their sovereignty, and we are committed by a long line of stump speeches to the idea that the canal should be fortified by us whether it needs fortification or not. The treaty makes provision for defence of the canal by us, but not for permanent fortification. Doubtless Secretary Hay took the view that the United States is strong enough to defend the canal without permanent fortifications, and that it would be a waste of time and words and opportunity to discuss a question of so much delicacy now. Such debates are to be expected, however, among Senators who have so often hurled defiance at the Powers of the Old World on this subject. The speeches being now all made and the treaty ratified, the work of building the canal will be resumed where the French company left it. Some little sputtering may be expected over the ratification in Colombia, but it is not to be supposed that the $10,000,000 which we are to pay that country for the privilege of making it the highway of nations will be thrown away for any sentimental considerations by the politicians at Bogota.

What is chiefly significant in the correspondence between the Argentine Minister and Secretary Hay, made public last week, is the further clarifying of an obscure question. Shall South American countries be exempt from forcible collection of just claims urged by European nations? It has long been a favorite doctrine of South American legists—it is laid down in Calvo's treatise on international law—that one Power has no right to exact payment *vi et armis* of any pecuniary claim whatever. The attempt has been made to place this doubtful contention under the ægis of Monroeism. Mr. Hay, however, refuses to strain the Monroe Doctrine in that way. He states the position of the Administration to be that it will not undertake to guarantee any South American republic from punitive measures in case of defaulted obligation, but only that such "punishment shall not take the form of the acquisition of territory." That position itself is not without its embarrassments. With a fine air of generous impartiality, we say to European Powers, "Certainly, go ahead and collect your South American debts; we shall not interfere." But if the creditor proceeds to levy upon the only property he may be able to find, then we *do* interfere with our veto. Nor will we, when the awkwardness of the resulting situation is urged upon us, undertake to keep our troublesome neighbors in order. Such are the complications of the anomalous position. It is somewhat cleared up, however, by the exchange of notes with Argentina. That country repudiates all intention to disown just claims, and asks only for consideration, for regular diplomatic presentation, and for arbitration, if possible, before the appeal to force. That is good sense and ought to be good international law.

That the Senate should at last be willing even to consider a resolution to limit debate, shows that the shafts of public indignation are beginning to strike home. It is not alone Congressman Cannon, not merely the House of Representatives, but the country at large that is growing weary and ashamed of a Senate of grown men which can find no way of escape from filibusterers and marauders on its own floor. Senator Hoar has proposed that a manual of parliamentary law be printed for the special use of the Senate. It certainly needs it. If we had a Vice-President who would exercise the functions of the ordinary presiding officer, and call upon Senators to speak to the point and do business, reform might be begun. He would incur odium at first, no doubt, and would not have the backing of the majority of the Senate; but that would come in time, and the endorsement of the people would be given from the first to any man who boldly strove to free the Senate from the humiliating fetters which it has forged for its own limbs. Meanwhile, the Senate Committee may do something, by the time Congress meets again, to prevent the upper chamber from fulfilling Shelley's dream of a

> "Senate-house whose floor
> Is Chaos."

What has become of the international monetary conference to establish a ratio of exchange between the gold-standard countries and the silver-using countries? The last time we saw it, Senator Aldrich was incubating it in the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill. It had been knocked out of the Philippine Currency bill by the House, and the Senate had concurred in the knockout, but the latter immediately put it in a safer place (the Sundry Civil bill), with an appropriation of $100,000 to pay our share of the expenses thereof. Now, we find, by reference to the *Congressional Record* of March 3, that it was knocked out a second time by a conference committee, and that, instead of an international conference, we are to have some kind of diplomatic treatment of the silver question at a cost not to exceed $25,000. The paragraph, as passed by the two houses, is as follows:

> "To enable the President to coöperate through diplomatic channels with the Governments of Mexico, China, Japan, and other countries for the purpose set forth in the message of the President and accompanying notes submitted to Congress January 29, 1903, and printed as Senate Document No. 119, second session, Fifty-seventh Congress, $25,000."

Further inquiry points to the conclusion that the anti-silver members of the House accepted the Senate's Philippine Currency bill on condition that the international conference clause should be stricken out, and that the silver Senators consented to the striking out on condition that it should be replaced and enacted in an appropriation bill. These two mutually destructive bargains were made at opposite ends of the Capitol at about the same time. Both of them could not be carried out. So the international conference was abandoned, but its simulacrum was preserved, and one-fourth of the money was retained in the bill. The only important question now is how to spend the $25,000. Probably somebody can be found to use it for travelling expenses.

Having over-hastily confirmed the nomination of Major William Plimley as Assistant Treasurer of the United States at New York, the Senate has acted wisely in asking the President to delay issuing his commission pending further consideration and investigation. It now appears that the favorable report of the Finance Committee, on which the Senate acted, was obtained in an informal manner by Senator Platt, when the Chairman of the Committee was absent. The nomination was confirmed within two hours after it was received. There really seems to have been no scrutiny of the nomination whatever. Undoubtedly further inquiry is desirable, not only on account of the importance of the office, but also because of some unpleasant reports which have been current since the nomination was made. Platt, who is Major Plimley's sponsor, assures the public that it is "all right," and that the confirmation is "sure to go through" at an early date. This is Platt's habitual cheerfulness, showing a chastened spirit, with which we are now familiar.

The *Evening Post* is printing a series of dispatches and letters dealing with the political corruption of Rhode Island. No colony had a nobler history than lit-

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tle Rhode Island, the home of religious freedom and of all civic virtues. And yet in spite of these fine traditions, in spite of generous provision for all grades of education, in spite of strong churches and able preachers, the country districts, under the malignant hand of a rich and powerful oligarchy, have sunk almost to the level of Delaware and Montana. The debauchery of Rhode Island has not been the work of a few years of pernicious activity like that of Addicks and Clark. Under the Constitution of 1842 each town and city has one member in the State Senate, to whose control, therefore, nothing is necessary but majorities in some of the small and feeble towns. For decades they have held the key to the Senate, and have been bribed by one party or another till now the electors literally have no conception of an honest vote. Against these conditions there has been a long, hard, and hitherto unavailing fight. The Republican boss, Charles R. Brayton, has kept an unshaken grip upon his rotten boroughs; street railways and other corporations that depend upon legislative favor have helped to throttle the commonwealth; and men like Senator Aldrich have risen to eminence through this degradation of their constituencies.

The Senate of Delaware voted on Monday, by 9 to 7, to repeal the Voter's Assistant law, by which bribery in elections is facilitated. This law allows the assistant to enter the polling booth and tell an ignorant voter how to mark his ballot. The system protects the vote buyer against the chance of being cheated out of his money. He need not pay until he sees the right ballot deposited in the box. Several attempts were made, before the recent election of Senators, to repeal this law, but they were defeated by Republican members who were virtuous enough to vote against Addicks, but not virtuous enough to disarm him and drive him away. The most surprising episode in the late proceedings was a speech made by Mr. Conner, one of the Addicks Senators, as published in the *World*. According to this report, Mr. Conner said that the Voter's Assistant law was a fair and commendable measure, because it insures delivery of the goods. "When I buy a horse," he continued, "I want my horse. When a Republican buys a vote, he wants his vote." He did not speak from any selfish motive, however. He wanted the Democrats to have an equal opportunty to secure what they pay for "instead of being cheated, as has been the case so many times in this State." Although the repealing bill has passed, it has to come for signature before an Addicks man as Governor.

Public attention of late has been so much engrossed in the political aspirations of J. Edward Addicks that it has overlooked some facts of interest regarding his financial affairs. There was published among the legal advertisements in this city, in the latter part of last December, a notice that, by virtue of a trust agreement dated January 1, 1889, between J. Edward Addicks and W. E. L. Dillaway of the first part, the Mercantile Trust Company of the second part, and the Bay State Gas Company of the third part, the said Mercantile Trust Company would on a certain day sell at auction 35,363 shares of stock of various gas companies situated in Boston and adjoining towns in Massachusetts. These were the properties of the Bay State Gas Company (of Delaware) of which J. Frank Allee, the newly-elected Senator of Delaware, was, and perhaps still is, President or executor *de bonis non*. The property advertised for sale was held by the Mercantile Trust Company to secure $12,000,000 of bonds on which default had been made by the debtor company, in respect of interest and sinking fund. Shortly afterward a suit was begun in the Supreme Court to restrain the Trust Company from selling the said securities, and a bill in equity was filed making various allegations and embracing numerous exhibits.

Among the latter was a correspondence between President Allee and Mr. F. W. Whitridge who had been for a short time, in 1897, a trustee of the Bay State Gas Company of New Jersey, the latter being one of the mortal forms assumed by the Addicks gas combine in its many transmigrations. President Allee, in his letter to Whitridge, dated January 17 of the present year, holds Whitridge and his associate trustees responsible for all that has happened to the property of the Delaware Company since December 7, 1896, including the threatened sale of stocks by the Mercantile Trust Company. The allegations of Allee embraced one charging that a certain trust deed had been executed to the injury of his company, which trust deed was illegal. "This allegation," says Whitridge in his reply, "was made although your company knows that it received a large consideration for the execution of said trust deed, which consideration was in part a package of five-dollar bills about seven inches high, paid over to your President, in the presence of several of your directors, three days before the Delaware election in the autumn of 1896." This is a contribution which might well be looked after in Mr. George Kennan's future explorations of the prison houses of Delaware. The injunction applied for to restrain the sale of the Bay State Gas Company's securities was not granted.

The highest vote on any of the Constitutional amendments in New Hampshire on Tuesday was about 40,000. This is only about half the vote in the election of 1902, and, much less than half the total of 1900, when it was 92,353. Such small votes require an explanation from the advocates of the referendum. The proposal to strike out the word *male* from the clause in the Constitution dealing with the elective franchise was beaten by a majority of almost 2 to 1, yet the amendment was regularly proposed by a Constitutional Convention, was definite and final in form, and ample time for discussion and agitation was allowed. Evidently conservative New England is still against woman suffrage.

It is astonishing how early, and at how many different places, the Presidential campaign of 1904 begins. We intended to claim the real starting-point for New York by showing that the fate of both parties would depend upon the success of some candidate for Mayor next fall, but Senator Foraker has anticipated us by announcing that Cincinnati has superior claims. The Democrats of that city have nominated Mr. Ingalls, the well-known railroad manager, for Mayor, and the Republicans have named a Mr. Fleischmann, not widely known to fame, but believed by Foraker to be "equally as good." The overwhelming reason, according to Foraker, why Fleischmann should be elected is that "this is the beginning of the great campaign of next year." He says "it is impossible to disguise this fact"; from which we infer that the Democrats are doing everything possible to conceal it, and are pretending that nothing but municipal issues, such as the rule of Boss Cox, are fit to be considered. Foraker will tear off that mask. He will show that not only in Cincinnati, but in all the cities of the Union, the Democrats are making believe that they are trying to reform local abuses while they are actually aiming to defeat the Republican party next year. The proof of this is that "everywhere they are preaching harmony and perfecting their organization." What better evidence could you have than that? If they were everywhere preaching discord and allowing their organization to fall in pieces, there might be some ground for saying that the nomination of such a man as Ingalls was intended for the sole benefit of Cincinnati, but when they are avowedly harmonious and energetic their designs must be dark indeed. In short, Foraker thinks that if Ingalls is elected Mayor, he will be "in line for the Governorship of Ohio and the Presidency." That would be awful.

The question may be properly asked whether there is any emergency warranting so much disturbance as the mortgage tax is producing in business circles. The Governor aims to get $5,500,000 more money from some source or sources to enable him to dispense with the so-called direct tax. The direct tax

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is a call upon the counties of the State for their proportion of this sum. Greater New York pays 60 per cent. of whatever is thus called for, but Greater New York could better afford to pay the entire 100 per cent. than to have this tax put on mortgages. The disarrangement of existing contracts and the upsetting of present calculations, based upon the system heretofore prevailing, might involve losses greater than the amount of the tax itself. Good authorities estimate the total amount of existing mortgages in Greater New York at $1,500,000,000. A tax of four mills, if it could all be collected, would be $6,000,000—a demand made in an unaccustomed form and at an unexpected time, and, as regards the savings banks, life-insurance companies, and building-and-loan associations, contrary to the previously declared policy of the State. If the present direct tax can be considered an evil, it is a much smaller one than the proposed tax on mortgages would be.

Recently the State of Nebraska, which forty years ago was an open plain trampled by buffalo, and ten years ago was affirming with vehemence the vagaries of the Ocala platform, invested $300,000 of its permanent school fund in bonds of the staid old commonwealth of Massachusetts. It took them at 3¾ per cent., a rate lower than could be afforded by Eastern banks at the time. The State Bank Commissioner of Kansas estimates that 68 per cent. of the $80,000,000 in the banks of that State is owned by farmers, or those who depend on agriculture directly for a livelihood. It is little wonder that the legislators chosen by a constituency where new conditions and new ideas prevail, are inclined to caution. This growth in conservatism in Western communities is, after all, only a repetition of the history of other sections and other lands. With possession comes responsibility. Responsibility steadies a State as it does an individual. It has broadened and liberalized the West, not alone in its general laws, but in its more local applications of the functions of government. The new outlook has convinced the possessors of the plains that the old ways are the sure ways, and that human nature is much the same East and West when it comes to the care of one's own.

An impression prevails that the changes in the immigration laws adopted by the last Congress have been of a radical type, and that they will make the United States much more difficult of access than it was before. This is a mistake. The law has been strengthened in some particulars, but has not been materially changed. The head tax, formerly $1, has been raised to $2. Citizens of Cuba, Mexico, and Canada are exempted from paying it. Epileptics and persons who have been insane within five years are excluded; also beggars, anarchists, and persons who bring in lewd women. Skilled labor may be imported if labor of the like kind unemployed cannot be found in this country. Alien contract laborers are defined to include those who come to the United States in pursuance of printed advertisements in foreign newspapers, excepting, however, the advertisements of States or Territories of the United States setting forth the inducements they offer for immigration thereto. Wives and children of persons who have taken up permanent residence in the United States and have filed declaration of intention to become citizens, may be admitted, even if they are afflicted with dangerous contagious disease, provided this was contracted on board ship, and provided the landing can be permitted without danger to other persons. Two long sections of the new act provide for the exclusion of anarchists and for the prevention of their naturalization in case they gain admission; but since the evidence to prove anarchism must generally be obtained from the immigrant himself, these sections can hardly be considered deterrent.

The vote of the Pennsylvania Railway shareholders, giving authority for the issue of $150,000,000 new stock, coincided rather strikingly with last week's over-strained money market and Wall Street's heavy draft on Europe for relief. During several months, it has been the commonplace of financial criticism to say that American capital is "tied up"; or, to put the matter in another way, that our floating capital has been largely placed in fixed investment, where it is not available for the money market's present uses. This fact being recognized, the Pennsylvania's forthcoming application is of interest, not only because of its magnitude, but because of the reasons offered for it. The company's annual report stated that $67,000,000 would be needed immediately. At the meeting on March 10, these imperative needs were set forth by the company as follows: Doubling the track facilities from Pittsburgh to the East; grading and six-tracking the line across New Jersey; adding largely to the company's carrying power; and beginning provision for the enormous New York terminal expenditure. That these requirements are really urgent, the recent serious freight blockade at Pittsburgh proved conclusively, and it is reasonable to expect, as Capt. Green pointed out for the company, that constant expenditure, on a similar scale and for similar purposes, must go on for at least three years.

It is legitimate railway expenditure of this sort which leads to the rather familiar comment that the money and stock markets are "suffering from too much prosperity." This assertion is, however, one of those half-truths which are quite as misleading as absolute misstatements. There is, and all along has been, in this country, abundant capital for the financing of enterprises such as we have described. It is not the building of new railway tracks and terminals and bridges which has overstrained the money market and depressed the general level of investment values. The trouble now, as last year, is the huge mass of capital appropriated by our promoting financiers and our ambitious corporation managers for the purpose of buying up existing properties at extravagant valuations—such, for instance, as the forty or fifty million dollars raised on their notes, two months ago, by the Pennsylvania Company itself, and the Lake Shore, to buy up stock of the Reading Railway Company.

Another seat was lost to the Conservatives on Wednesday week, at the same time that the Ministry was saved from defeat in the House only by the abstention of the Irish Nationalists. The price which the latter are to get, or to demand, for their complaisance, we shall know only when the new land bill is introduced. The figure certainly will have to be a high one to make up for the recent quiescence of the Irish in the House. Economists recognize a right to profit from abstention or self-sacrifice; and Irish abstention will expect to be capitalized at a high rate in Mr. Wyndham's land-purchase bill. Moore said of his countrymen that they were always either "blarneying or brawling." Blarney has reigned triumphant for the past few weeks, but the brawling may confidently be looked for if Irish expectations are not met.

Emperor William does not seem to have chosen a happy moment for pardoning a convicted army duellist. His act comes directly upon the heels of an acrimonious debate in the Reichstag on the subject of duelling in the army. The Liberal and Socialist Deputies distinctly had the Minister of War on the defensive. He had to promise to do all he could to put down the duelling practice. Yet here comes the Emperor extending clemency to a peculiarly flagrant offender, who had been sentenced by a military court to two years' imprisonment. His case was one of those which most inflame the German people, since it was a civilian whom he had killed. A very bad effect must be produced by his pardon—not only in the army, where the swaggering exponents of the duello will now feel that they have the Kaiser with them, no matter what public opinion may be, but also in the ranks of the Social Democrats, where the opposition to oppressive militarism, with its barbaric notions of "honor," will be more bitter than ever.

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MORE CUBAN JUGGLING.

The Cuban Treaty is to be ratified—by neatly killing it. The lurking enemies of the treaty have walked up to it with smiles, have said to it, "Art thou in health, my brother?" and have deftly inserted a knife under its fifth rib. This weapon was wrapped in an amendment, accepted by the Committee on Foreign Relations and reported to the Senate, in these terms—"This treaty shall not take effect until the same shall have been approved by Congress."

To appreciate the significance of this, we have only to look back to the regular session. Early in its course, Senator Cullom reported a resolution, and made a speech upon it, maintaining that the approval of the House was not necessary, even in the case of a treaty affecting the revenue laws. He took strong Constitutional and historic ground, and stood up for the prerogative of the President and the privileges of the Senate as the treaty-making power. The House had a duty, of course, in passing laws in execution of a treaty, but it had no right to be consulted in advance, or to block ratification. That could be perfected without its consent. Moreover, when the very amendment now adopted was offered last winter, it was voted down as both derogating from the dignity of the Senate and imperilling the treaty itself. The fear was that the House would not approve. It was in session then, and the friends of the treaty dared not risk submitting it to a vote in the House. Now that the House is not in session, they deliberately provide for action by it which may not be had, of course, for a year or more, if ever. The treaty is, indeed, passed on to the Representatives with a pretty broad hint that they are expected to do the final slaughtering which the Senate finds it inconvenient to undertake at this time. Thus what we have is a good deal like ratification by burial.

This surrender by the Senate of one of its prerogatives which hitherto it has asserted most stoutly, has a sinister look. Why was the thing done just at this time, and in connection with just this treaty? We can see no answer except that the Senate sought to do by indirection what it lacked the courage to do in a straightforward way. Willing to wound and yet afraid to strike, it passed on the dagger to another hand. Historically, of course, the House has always had a right in connection with treaties, but never the right now tossed to it by the Senate. The question was fought out at the very beginning of the Government, in connection with the Jay treaty; there were those who then asserted the equal voice of the House in the ratification of treaties, but that claim was not sustained. Under its power to refuse legislation necessary to carry out a treaty, the House may, of course, nullify it after the event. This it has never done, we believe, except in the case of the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico. But in the present instance, the volunteered suggestion by the Senate is too broad. "Here is the treaty," Senators say, in effect. "It was an Administration measure, and we could not very well refuse it. But, as you see, we have merely arranged to keep it in suspended animation for a year, and shall then look to you to squeeze the last breath out of it."

President Roosevelt has urged the ratification of the treaty for three reasons. We were in honor bound to give the Cubans a market. But that was the easiest thing in the world for the Senate to get over. It had as contemptuous an opinion of "honor" as Falstaff. Next, said the President, this treaty is a part of our "world-policy." Cuba is within our sphere, and we must treat her so that she will always be looking to us, not to Europe. But world-policy ran up against "my-deestrict" policy, and was ignominiously beaten, not for the first nor the last time. It is humiliating, but it is a solemn fact, that just when you are getting into a fine glow over your plans for dazzling the world, some man from the backwoods, some friend of the beet or of a smuggled herring, rises up to say, "Oh, shucks!" and brings your grandiose programme to the ground. Our ardent Imperialists forgot this, but the failure of their Philippine tariff, and now the burial alive of their Cuban treaty, ought to remind them that there are more things in Congress and in the course of legislation than were dreamed of in their eager young philosophy.

The President also made a plea for the Cuban Treaty on the ground that it would be a good thing for the trade of both countries. We should buy more of Cuba, Cuba would take more of our products. That the latter would have been the sure result of putting the treaty into effect, is fully admitted in the report of the committee on the subject made to the Cuban Senate. It stated that the treaty would so favor American goods that they would have an advantage over all competitors. This, of course, was precisely the fear of English and French exporters to Cuba, and was the reason of their flurried concern. The enlargement of a profitable trade within our reach was unmistakable. Why, then, did we not take it? Why did the Senate determine to keep everything hanging for a twelvemonth or longer, and continue that uncertainty which, the Havana dispatches say, Cuban planters and merchants dread more than they did the outright rejection of the treaty? For no reason, except that the sacred tariff was involved. We should have to reduce a few duties, and the selfish interests that insisted upon their retention were too strong to be dislodged. A greedy, a sullen, an entrenched protectionism has again blocked President Roosevelt. And he is only beginning to find out the hatred it cherishes for any man who dares to lay a hand upon one of its inviolable schedules.

REMEDIES FOR THE BOYCOTT.

The law-abiding citizens of Waterbury, Conn., have been afflicted for some weeks with an interruption of street-car traffic due to a strike of the employees of the local trolley company, accompanied by threats and violence against persons who attempt to run the cars, culminating in the murder of a policeman. A boycott has also been declared against all persons who ride in the cars, and the whole community has been, and still is, under terrorism and mob rule. The condition has become unbearable, and at last the citizens who are not primarily concerned in the controversy have been driven to the necessity of organizing against organized labor. At all events, they have been forced to consider what means may be open to them to escape from the torments of the boycott.

The question involved in the strike itself is the least important thing to be here considered. The most important is the right of each citizen to be unmolested in his person and property so long as he obeys the laws, pays his taxes, and does not violate the equal rights of any other person. When this right is denied and infringed by an individual, he is usually sued for damages or indicted by the grand jury; in an aggravated case, is sent to jail. When it is done by a large number of persons in combination, then usually nobody is sued or punished in any way. The mobbing and the boycotting go on indefinitely until one or the other of the parties to the original quarrel is reduced to exhaustion. Meanwhile, the mass of the communtity, innocent of any offence, have endured privations and inflictions of many kinds, have suffered cruel anxieties, while, perhaps, their business has been ruined.

The conditions existing at Waterbury are very common in the United States. There are dozens of strikes going on or preparing now, and each one is liable to be converted incontinently into a boycott. The legal right to strike is not denied, although some limitations as to time are put upon it by the courts in rare instances where public interests are deeply concerned. Generally speaking, the right of workmen to sell their labor freely and to bargain either singly or *en masse* is never called in question. When, however, this right is perverted to a boycott, it becomes an attack upon society as a whole, and one which ought to be resisted by society as a whole. If A has a quarrel with B, he has no right to demand that C, D, and E shall espouse his side and fight his battles. That is what the boycotter demands; and as long

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as society tolerates the imposition, boycotts will multiply and the loss and suffering will increase and deepen.

It was perceived some years ago by certain groups of employers that capital could not maintain itself against organized labor unless it were itself organized. If the workingmen in a particular trade can strike against all the employers by turns, they can bring them all down by turns; but if the employers agree to stand by each other, they can fight an equal battle. In no other way can they hope to do so. The old maxim that in union there is strength applies to them as it does to their employees, or to the bundle of sticks in the fable. A strike is now threatened in the shipbuilding trade, and the shipbuilders have formed a union to protect themselves. Whatever they do will be done in common. No one will seek to gain an advantage over his competitors in the same trade while a common danger impends over all.

Now, Waterbury and all other towns afflicted by boycotters will have to learn the same lesson and adopt the same method of self-protection. Society must protect itself against boycotting practices. This is not so difficult as it seems. Society is already an organization. It makes the law, and it has officers and courts to enforce the law. Mobs, and boycotters, and murderers, and dynamiters are lawbreakers. It is only necessary to execute the laws, and if they are insufficient, to ask the Legislature for new ones. But it will be found in the vast majority of instances that they are sufficient now, and that the only thing wanting is a determined effort to enforce them. If society in Waterbury is supine and nerveless, if the citizens are cowed by the lawless members of the community, if they are so fearful of the loss of patronage that they dare not uphold the rights which the laws guarantee them, they will soon have no rights at all. People who can move away from the town will do so, and those who are so fortunate as not to have homes or property there will avoid the place.

These words are applicable to many other cities besides Waterbury. The evils which exist there have been witnessed in hundreds of towns, large and small, during the past ten years. The city of Chicago was a prey to a boycott in the building trade, where boycotting was practised extensively by both sides, and which lasted eighteen months. One of the valuable results of that prolonged struggle was a pamphlet compilation by Mr. James A. Miller, Chairman of the Legal Committee of the Building Contractors' Council, showing what legal remedies exist for combating the illegal doings of organized labor. Those who read it will be surprised to find how many of the practices commonly used to coerce employers and the public generally to do things contrary to their inclination and their interest, are illegal and remediable in the courts, if the sufferers will unite and boldly fight for their rights.

THE CZAR'S DECREE.

The decree with which the Russian Emperor has commemorated the birthday of his late father, is rather a declaration of principles than a programme of reforms. It is notable for a certain nobility and religious exaltation, which are quite worthy of the mind that first conceived the idea of universal disarmament; but it leaves the student of Russian affairs in some doubt as to the actual changes that are planned in the present political order. The Czar, it is clear, evidently desires (1) complete religious toleration, (2) increase in the powers of the provincial and local assemblies, (3) relaxation of some of the old and tyrannous practices of the village community *(Mir)*.

Nominally, a considerable measure of religious toleration already exists in Russia; but, practically, the local officials have the power to persecute dissenters of all sorts. It is not likely that the Czar can contrive any different system. He hopes, undoubtedly, that this striking expression of his own will may have an abiding moral effect upon all Russian bureaucrats in contact with unpopular sects. The lodging of greater powers in the provincial assemblies (zemstvos) is probably the most far-reaching principle set forth by the Czar. Prince Kropotkin and many other intelligent Russians have long felt that, with the expansion of the Russian Empire, the bureaucracy was breaking down in operation. These observers have predicted that decentralization must take place, or the Imperial machine fall apart from severity of strain. Evidently this is the opinion of the Czar, since he plans to put a larger part of the financial control of the provinces in the hands of those popularly elected bodies, the zemstvos. But any such changes will come about very gradually, and all these reforms are more or less dependent upon the good will of a not very friendly bureaucracy. The Czar's philanthropic designs will sooner take effect in the modifications of certain oppressions of the system of village control.

To a Russian, the *Mir* signifies indifferently his world and his village. It may ostracise him, or, again, it may forbid him to leave his unprofitable acres; through the taxing right it may for a long period control his person and his labor. These rights come from immemorial use, and it is conceivable that their abrogation may be unpopular even with those whose conditions of life would thus be made easier. Yet it should be assumed that the convenience of the changes will soon recommend them, even though they mean a profound modification in the most characteristic of Russian institutions—for the *Mir* was old long before provincial councils or the Empire itself had appeared.

A careful examination of the decree will show that it is not an emergency measure, but the announcement of a new and permanent policy. It is not the answer to the industrial strikes or the student riots of last year, for the reforms will affect chiefly the peasants and the rural nobility. It goes deep below the thin strata of discontent to the bedrock of national life. It is not precisely a response to the recent conferences of the provincial councils held by the Emperor's order, for it appears that the Minister of the Interior, M. Plehve, did everything in his power to make these reform conferences meaningless, and to divert the conferees from real issues. The Emperor has apparently gone over the head of his own Minister, and has faced the problem of local government on general principles of fair dealing. It seems equally certain that the proclamation of religious toleration must be distasteful to M. Pobyedonostseff, the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod. It is like Nicholas III. to cherish generous imaginings, but it is not like him to cross two of his most prominent advisers. For this reason, many will ask, Who encouraged the Czar not only to imagine, but to take so bold a step? And many will conjecture that M. Witte, the Minister of Finance, has seen in the Czar's beneficent plan an opportunity for fiscal reorganization.

Whatever may be the actual outcome of the Czar's decree, it will remain a most honorable monument to his memory. The warmth of the phrasing comes unquestionably from his own heart. Hundreds of interested voices must have told him that the step was a dangerous one, and that his sentimentality would mean the ultimate destruction of the Empire itself. To all such his answer, through this decree, has been, "I choose liberty, though perilous."

The growth of a genuine Liberal party in Russia is interestingly described by F. Volkhovsky, in the *Contemporary Review*. The movement started partly as an offset to so-called Nihilism. Without elaborate organization, a common purpose bound together a great number of nobles and university men in the county councils. In a necessarily informal and secret conference held last summer in Moscow, the Liberals made specific requests for judicial reform, universal primary education, the popularizing of the elections to the zemstvos, the reduction of Government income to actual expenditure, the removal of the censorship. It is needless to say that these pioneers of reform have been vehemently opposed by the Minister of the Interior, Plehve, as they were by his predecessor, the murdered Sipaguine. The local officials of the Empire made it their care to stifle pertinent discussion

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in the zemstvos, and to keep the leaders in a state of fear. The only organ of the party is naturally not published in Russia, but abroad, in Stuttgart. This new constitutionalism is significant, first, because it seeks gradual and possible reforms; second, because its adherents are people who have a stake in the community. Abortive as the efforts of these Liberals appear, their agitation cannot be looked upon as vain; the Czar's rescript foreshadows many of the reforms suggested at the Liberal conference of last summer, particularly the granting of additional powers to the provincial councils.

The Czar's effort to lift up the muzhik wins unstinted praise from the very American newspapers which would have the negro kept down. This is strange. Do they wish it to appear that they like the doctrine of equal human rights only in Russia? The same arguments which they have used against President Roosevelt's policy of negro appointments would apply as well to the Czar's decree in behalf of the Russian peasants. Why give them a measure of local self-government? It will only encourage them to demand impossible things. And it is certain to "make trouble." The kindly relation between the great landowners and the ex-serfs will be sure to be broken up. As for "forced labor," of course, that has an unpleasant sound, but, after all, does it not correspond to the hard fact? If the muzhik is not compelled to work, will he work at all? Thus to abolish the *corvée* would simply fill the land with sturdy beggars. So the argument might run on indefinitely. All that we say is that if it is good for the Russian peasant to have the door of hope set open before him, so it is for the American negro. And we do not wish to confine our praise to those who are trying in a foreign land to elevate the ignorant and downtrodden.

LOUISE DE LA VALLIÈRE.

PARIS, February 25, 1903.

M. Lair, a member of the French Institute, has published a new and more compendious edition of his biography of the famous Louise de la Vallière, who was so long a favorite of Louis XIV. before she entered a Carmelite convent. Mademoiselle de la Vallière is the type of the "illustrious penitent," and wears about her a sort of half-romantic, half-religious halo. Her letters, long known only in a sort of rhetorical arrangement, have been found, transcribed in their exact text, at the little château of Bures, in the valley of Chevreuse. M. Lair began his work in that château, and dedicates it to the lady who was its proprietor at the time when he attempted to write the life of La Vallière.

Louise was born at Tours on the 6th of August, 1644. Her father, Laurent de la Baume Le Blanc, added to his family name that of the estate of La Vallière, which was near Amboise. She became, at a very early age, one of the ladies of Marguerite of Lorraine, the second wife of Monsieur, Duke of Orleans, who lived in exile at Blois. When Louis XIV. took with his mother, Anne of Austria, a journey to the Spanish frontier, where he was to find an Infanta, his future wife, he stopped on his way at Blois, his mother wishing to detach the young King from Mazarin's niece, for whom he had conceived a passion. Louis XIV. paid no attention to the young La Vallière, who was afterwards to play such a great part in his life.

After the death of Gaston d'Orléans, his widow did not remain at Blois. She left immediately for Paris, where she established herself in the Luxembourg, which was then called the Palais d'Orléans. Louise de la Vallière continued to live near her, and to be the companion of the three princesses of Orleans. The eldest of these had been thinking some time of becoming the Queen of France, but Anne of Austria had never been willing to favor this alliance. Mademoiselle de la Vallière, who was only sixteen and a half years old, had many bad examples before her. The princesses were jealous of each other; both of them wished to marry the young Prince Charles of Lorraine. The Prince asked for the hand of the eldest, who was the richest, though he preferred her sister Marguerite. The despair of Marguerite was very great; the hand of the Prince of Tuscany was offered her, but she would not at first hear of it. "The King," she said, "was a tyrant." She fled for a time to a convent. "Every day she went out hunting, and sometimes lost herself in the woods, followed by her cousin Charles of Lorraine; she came back at night dishevelled, with her habit torn." All this did not prevent her from being married in April, 1661, to the Italian prince.

The same month, Monsieur, the brother of the King, was married to Princess Henrietta, the daughter of the King of England. Monsieur received the appanage of Gaston d'Orléans, whose widow had no more need of her many ladies. Mademoiselle de la Vallière did not, however, return to her province, and, through the influence of Madame de Choisy, wife of the ex-chancellor of Gaston d'Orléans, she was named one of the maids of honor of the new Madame. This place gave her a pension of a hundred livres (equivalent to about five or six hundred francs a year). This sum would hardly have paid for her clothes, but her living was assured, and she had a good chance of finding a husband. The young La Vallière accepted the offer. She had two unmarried sisters; her parents were poor. She was to leave the Luxembourg, the austere Dowager of Orleans, the fanciful Grande Mademoiselle, and to enter the Tuileries as maid to Madame, the sister-in-law of the King. It seemed to her the most brilliant of dreams. In this new world she was pronounced to be "very pretty, very sweet, very innocent." Monsieur the Duke d'Orléans was amiable; the young Princess Henrietta was the granddaughter of Henri IV., the daughter of Charles I. There was a sort of poetic halo round her.

Louis XIV., who had felt a great dislike to Princess Henrietta when he first saw her, found her much changed to her advantage when she became Madame. She conquered him, and at Fontainebleau he gave a succession of feasts in her honor. The young La Vallière was thrown into the whirl without any guide; she had no intimate acquaintance except another maid of honor, Françoise de Montalais, a dangerous intriguer. A picture, attributed to Mignard (and reproduced in engraving in M. Lair's volume), shows a mythological Louis XIV., in the dress of a shepherd, with Madame and her six maids of honor. All the ladies wear the ringlets which were the fashion of the time; two of them have little pet dogs. Apollo looks very languid, and two little loves are flying in the air. The King saw La Vallière at every moment, and became attached to her; she fell in love with him. Her resistance, it must be confessed, was not protracted, and the King's victory was easy. Louise, who had arrived at Fontainebleau in the month of May, was, before the end of July, the King's mistress. The Queen Mother had been completely deceived by the King's familiarity with Madame; she had seen the danger where it was not, or where it had been only for a moment.

Among those who had paid their court to La Vallière was the famous Superintendent Fouquet. He had the impudence to make her, through a disreputable lady, the offer of a sum of money. Louis XIV. became all the more angry with Fouquet in that he was afraid of him. He had already resolved to dismiss him. In the midst of the great festival at Vaux, Fouquet's magnificent château, the King expressed to his mother the desire to have him arrested. The Queen-Mother remonstrated, and invoked the laws of hospitality. Louis XIV. contrived a journey to Brittany with Fouquet, and had him arrested at Nantes. The unfortunate Superintendent was imprisoned some time in the castle of Amboise, where La Vallière had spent the best years of her childhood; and, by a curious coincidence, the King's lieutenant at Amboise was then François de la Vallière, Louise's own brother.

During the King's absence, La Vallière lived very quietly in her little room under the eaves at Fontainebleau. The King was so anxious to see her that he rode one day thirty-seven leagues, an exploit which was much admired. He had forbidden his mistress to take Mademoiselle de Montalais, whom he disliked, into her confidence. She had imprudently done so, and refused to tell Louis XIV. the secrets of Montalais, who helped Madame in her intrigues. Louis XIV. made such a scene with La Vallière that she ran away and took refuge in a convent near Chaillot. She was admitted with great difficulty. As soon as Louis XIV. knew of it, he ran to Chaillot, found her in tears, obtained from her a confession of the intrigues of Montalais, and sent for a coach to bring her back to the Tuileries. The hour of La Vallière's final retreat had not yet struck, but her flight shows in what direction her thoughts were already moving.

The favor shown her made her great enemies, though she was not ambitious, and we read in the History of Madame Henriette that "if she did not profit by the advantages and the credit assured by such a great passion as the King's, it was because she had little *esprit*." A favorite was considered at that time a political power, but La Vallière never wielded such a power. Among her most bitter enemies was the Countess de Soissons, Olympe Mancini, one of the nieces of Mazarin; with

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the help of the Marquis de Vardes and of the Duke de Guiche, she advised Maria Theresa by an anonymous letter of the King's relations with La Vallière. The letter fell into the hands of the King (as it was supposed to come from Spain), and the Queen did not see it. During this incident, Bossuet was preaching before the King. "Louis," says M. Lair, "admired the genius of Bossuet, and paid great compliments to the orator; but of his apostolic counsels he made two parts: as a man, he showed great indulgence to himself; as a prince, he showed himself severe towards others. Guiche and Montalais, who were decidedly mixed up in too many intrigues, were exiled."

M. Lair follows La Vallière from month to month in her new life. She had to leave the court when she became a mother, and she spent the time of her retreat in a house near the Palais-Royal, which the King gave her. The first-born of Louis XIV. and of the favorite saw the light on the 24th of December, 1663. A new life was beginning for her. She was recognized as favorite only at the end of 1664; this gave her a sort of official position, and allowed her to take her place again in the rooms of the Queen-Mother and of the Queen. In 1665 she had another child, a boy. At the time of the death of Anne of Austria, the passion of Louis XIV. was already coming to an end; the rising star was Françoise de Montespan, who belonged to the illustrious family of the Rochechouarts, and was a great wit as well as a great beauty. M. Lair enters into the most minute details on the subject of the efforts made by Madame de Montespan to conquer the King. She did not hesitate to ask for the help of the infamous Voisin against La Vallière. M. Funck-Brentano told us not long ago the whole story of the trial, which bears the name of "the trial of the prisons." M. Lair, a most conscientious writer, has a full chapter on the same subject: "All," he says, "that follows is part of a long and minute judicial inquest, made by a man of rare honesty and penetration. Later, the royal authority attempted to annihilate the traces of these odious superstitions; but the truth has come to us. It is certain now that many ladies asked the woman Voisin for means to obtain the favor of the King."

Madame de Montespan had no need of the horrible incantations of the Voisin, of the abominable "black mass" which was celebrated over her by an infamous priest; it was enough that Louis XIV. had become tired of La Vallière—she had ceased to amuse him. Of the two children that he had had by her, only one lived, a little boy. She had another child, which was born at Vincennes, a girl, at the time when the term of her favor was already marked.

I have no space to linger over the last moments which La Vallière spent at the court; it is well known that she left it for a Carmelite convent, and it is chiefly on account of her conversion that she has taken a special place among the favorites of Louis XIV. The legend will have it that she loved the King for himself, and has invested her with a sort of romantic halo. M. Lair's book, so valuable for its details and *précis-documents*, does not, in my opinion, give a special preëminence to Mademoiselle de la Vallière. She was an ordinary person, with ordinary feelings; and "after all," as the Grande Mademoiselle said, "she was not the first person to be converted."

Correspondence.

ECONOMIC ADMINISTRATION IN CUBA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article of March 5, dealing with the Cuban financial situation, seems to me very misleading and unjust to Gen. Wood's administration in at least one important particular. Without other information, the reader would, I think, gather from your article that the different results attained under the three régimes to which you allude were due entirely to ability in the administration of affairs. You say that the surplus under the Palma administration was "attained on the basis of practically the same revenue and *without curtailing the public service*" (italics are mine). I have not at hand the data to enable me to call in question your statement as to revenue. I have, however, before me, in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (March, 1903), Gen. Wood's paper on the military government of Cuba. Every one interested in the Cuban situation should read the paper referred to, and no one who reads it will, I am sure, accept the plain inference of your article that the demands upon the Wood and Palma administrations were substantially the same.

The work done by Gen. Wood in Cuba, in creating a government, in establishing sound sanitary conditions, courts, public schools, proper prisons, and, in fact, nearly everything that constitutes a civilized government, not only out of chaos, but under most unfavorable circumstances and environment, was the work of a genius, and of one who had his whole heart and soul in the enterprise. The stamping out of yellow fever alone is worth to the island twenty surpluses, and it is impossible to compare the cost of such work of construction with that of conducting the government after being organized and put into going order.—Yours very truly,

Max Levy.

Germantown, Pa., March 8, 1903.

[We did not question the value of the services rendered by Gen. Wood; but we think that those who know most about the details of his administration are agreed that it was extravagant. His last budget (we take the figures from the new Cuban journal of finance, *El Economista)* showed receipts of $18,791,473, and expenditures of $19,514,603. The corresponding figures for President Palma's first year are $17,548,924 and $15,389,901. This great saving in outlay has been effected, says the *Economista*, "notwithstanding the new services created, the increase in the rural guard, and certain extra expenditures."—Ed. Nation.]

SELF-SUPPORT IN SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a general belief that Southern students rarely, if ever, make the money they spend on their education. I have collected information which, summarized here, will show that there is a fair percentage of students in the South who make part or all of the money required for their collegiate expenses.

The collegiate authorities do all in their power to aid the needy student. In agricultural and mechanical colleges almost all the hired labor is performed by students, who receive from eight to twenty cents for an hour's work. They do various kinds of work about the shop, run the engines and dynamos, fire the furnaces, sweep the floors, and clean the machinery. On the college farm they milk the cows and aid in the work generally. Students carry the mail of the university, clerk in the book store, ring the bell for the hours of recitation, assist in running the press.

A student's first thought, when left to his own resources for a way to earn money, is an agency. The most common agencies are for wood, coal, books, clothing, shoes, laundry, and insurance. Occasionally a student opens a barber shop on the campus, or runs a pressing club. Some students are janitors of the literary societies, of the dormitories (as in the University of Arkansas), and of churches. Others saw wood, garden, work around the yards and stables of families in the town. Waiting at the table is confined to student bodies, to the mess-halls; but student waiters are to be found in some institutions in almost every Southern State. Last year twenty-five waited on the table at the University of North Carolina. Not a few manage messing clubs, or even do their own cooking. Students get work in town as bookkeepers, typewriters, or collectors.

During the summer months many students work on farms, teach schools, fill positions of surveyors, telegraph operators, clerks in stores and hotels, reporters, conductors on railroads. Many are agents for books, pictures, stereoscopic views, or fruit trees.

Of 804 students at the University of Texas, 268 made the money they were spending on their education, and 154 contributed to their support while students. At South Carolina College one man in seven makes a part or all of his collegiate expenses, which is about the average.

Edwin L. Green.

South Carolina College, March 11, 1903.

LYNCH'S CREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article on "Lynch Law," in No. 1953 of the *Nation*, there occurs on page 441 this sentence: "It has been asserted that lynch law derived its name from Lynch's Creek, S. C., because at that place the practice of lynching began. This derivation of the term has yet to be proved," etc.

An example of the use of the word in connection with this creek, and of the wide range of meanings which it could have, is found in a journal kept by the Rev. William H. Wills, a Methodist minister of North Carolina, who travelled in his sulky from Tarboro, N. C., to Alabama, in the early summer of 1837. After describing a narrow escape from drowning in an at-

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tempt to cross Lynch's Creek while it was swollen, he says:

"Probably I shall never forget Lynches Creek; for it had well nigh Lynchd me."

This journal is now appearing serially in the Publications of the Southern History Association, and the sentence in question is on page 479 of volume vi. (November, 1902).

GEORGE S. WILLS.

WESTMINSTER, MD., March 9, 1903.

DR. GARNETT AND CERTAIN SOCIETIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Richard Garnett, former Keeper of the Books at the British Museum, has sent me a letter, of which the enclosed is a copy, and asks me to send it to one or more literary journals or newspapers to be published. Dr. Garnett says that he has been pestered a great deal of late, and desires to prevent, if possible, the indiscriminate and unauthorized use of his name as sponsor for various questionable commercial enterprises. He therefore desires that general publicity be given to this denial of his affiliation with the two concerns he mentions.—Yours very truly,

D. D. HARPER, Treasurer.

BOSTON, March 12, 1903.

SIR: Understanding that my name has been widely advertised in connection with an "International Bibliophile Society" at New York, I *feel compelled to disclaim* all knowledge of this society, except as concerns the circumstance referred to. The only Bibliophile Society in the United States of which I have any cognizance is the Bibliophile Society of Boston, with which I esteem it an honor to have had relations. I further beg leave to disclaim all connection with a so-called "Anthologists' Society," which appears to have made use of my name in a manner entirely unauthorized by me.

I remain, sir, your faithful servant,

R. GARNETT.

HAMPSTEAD, ENGLAND, February 20, 1903.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to a brief review, in a recent number of the *Nation*, of the Physical Papers of the late Professor Rowland, and, as Secretary of the committee in charge of the publication of these papers, I think it necessary to call your attention to certain misstatements in the article referred to.

In the first place, the reviewer says that the reprints of some of the experimental works are "too much abridged to answer all the purposes of the critical student." As a matter of fact, every published paper dealing with Rowland's experimental work, either from the point of view of theory or results, is reprinted in full in this volume, with the exception of the figures in the *Tables* of Wave Lengths, copies of which Tables, however, accompany each volume. Not one word is omitted. The description of the methods by which these Tables are obtained is published in the volume. It may be that the reviewer is under the impression that the extracts from certain French scientific papers in regard to Professor Rowland's last determination of the Ohm are abstracts of published articles, whereas, in reality, Professor Rowland never published any description of the methods or results of this research.

In the second place, the reviewer refers to "some public addresses and other writings," thus implying, possibly, that there were other similar writings which were not included in the volume. In reality, *all* Professor Rowland's "addresses and other writings" are reprinted.

In the third place, those papers on purely mathematical subjects which are omitted from the volume, four in number, are in no case those which "most stirred Physical thought and upon which his place among those American physicists who since Rumford have influenced fundamental conceptions (if any such there be) must mostly depend." If the reviewer will look for one moment at the lists of the papers omitted, or, better still, if he will read the papers, he will see for himself why they were omitted. It should be noted, moreover, that every paper, mathematical or not, dealing with the fundamental conceptions of Physics, which Professor Rowland published, is, without exception, reprinted in this volume. Opinions may differ in the years to come as to the relative value of Rowland's contributions to science, but there can be no doubt that his thoughts and his experimental investigations in regard to the properties of heat, light, and electricity will always be of permanent value. Every paper published by Professor Rowland bearing in the remotest degree upon the above subjects is included in this volume.

It is a matter of regret that to any one the character of the publication of this volume should seem to have taken a "cheapish" form. It was the effort of the committee to give the volume such a character in respect to paper, type, illustrations, and binding that it would in every way be a fit memorial of their late colleague. As a matter of fact, the volume in its external appearance compares most favorably with the publications of the collected works of Lord Rayleigh, of Hopkinson, of Reynolds, and others which have recently appeared.

It is a pity that the reviewer did not see fit to call attention to certain features of the volume which will make it always useful to all students of physics—such as the publication of many papers which had been entirely lost sight of, and the detailed description of Rowland's wonderful ruling engine, the mechanism of which is here for the first time explained in print.

I am, sir, very truly yours.

J. S. AMES.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, March 7, 1903.

[We have received from our contributor the following statement concerning this matter.—ED. NATION.]

"Professor Ames's letter convicts me of a grievous mistake of a complex nature. I received a copy of the volume with the request for a note upon it, and very unwisely accepted the commission when it was not in my power to make a sufficiently careful examination of it. The copy sent me was not accompanied by the wave-length determinations for which the name of Rowland is now uppermost; and two misapprehensions of mine, due to my well knowing his insistence on the publication of all details of experimentation, led me to think that these had been omitted in other cases. I had read Rowland's first mathematical memoir, which seemed to me to contain a striking enlargement of conceptions of electricity, and to place him in a higher rank of science than his experimental work. I was aware that there was some controversy in regard to its soundness; but there have been before mathematical works which proved upon examination to be unsound, yet which incontestably advanced human thought in no small measure. If it be true that Rowland's mathematical work is a total wreck and must be consigned to oblivion, I shall be very sorry as an American and as an admirer of the glories of the Johns Hopkins University. No doubt, Rowland will still remain a physicist of very high importance.

"As to the description of the famous ruling machine, I assumed that this gave the working drawings with explanation. If I had looked more carefully at them, I should have seen that this was not their character. It appears that they are new drawings, executed to scale for the purpose of this publication; and this sufficiently evidences the care that has been bestowed upon it. My epithet 'cheapish' marked my general dissatisfaction; but, with Professor Ames's explanation, it reduces itself to an expression of taste merely."

Notes.

Under the general editorship of Harry Roberts, a series of illustrated handbooks dealing practically with country life, and suitable for pocket or knapsack, will be published by John Lane, beginning with 'The Tramp's Handbook.' The same firm will issue 'New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle,' edited by Sir James Crichten Browne.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will shortly issue 'How to Build and Furnish a Home,' by William L. Price and W. M. Johnson.

'The Gate Beautiful: Being Principles and Methods in Vital Art Education,' by Prof. John Ward Stimson, is announced by Albert Brandt, Trenton, N. J.

William E. D. Scott, Curator of Ornithology of Princeton University, tells of his "laboratory" of live birds in 'The Story of a Bird Lover,' to be published directly by the *Outlook* Co., together with a volume of 'British Portraits,' by Justin McCarthy.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will bring out this spring, in addition to a long line of fiction, a one-volume edition of the revised Nuttall's 'Popular Handbook of the Birds of the United States and Canada,' and 'Kennel Diseases,' by "Ashmont" (J. Frank Perry, M.D.).

'Civil War Times,' by Daniel Wait Howe (Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.), consists mainly of the story of the author's experiences as captain of the Seventy-ninth Indiana Infantry, with a preliminary view of a three months' service as private in the West Virginia campaigns about Philippi. As a background for the operations of the regiment in the battles of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia in 1862-3-4, some discussions are given of the notable leaders who passed across the stage, in rapid procession, in command of the armies of the Middle West; discussions which are judicious and temperate, and which aid in presenting to the reader who may not be familiar with more elaborate war histories, a measurably clear and just picture of the methods and faults of the powers at Washington and in the field, which protracted the war and cruelly wasted the national resources and enthusiasm. Some interesting columns of comparative statistics, compiled largely from the volumes of Cols. Fox and Livermore, constitute a chapter of the volume which may be studied with profit.

'The History of the First Tennessee Cav-

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alry,' by W. R. Carter (Knoxville), is written in the customary style, popular and eulogistic, of the great throng of regimental memorials issued since the close of the civil war, which have helped to throw valuable light upon the spirit of the "uprising of the American people" and the rapid adaptation of men who, for the most part, were of a purely industrial and mercantile temper, to the exigencies of war. The people of East Tennessee, however, like most Southerners, did not find it hard to fit themselves to be soldiers, and, according to this historian, showed the extraordinary record of more than thirty-five thousand enlistments in the Union service out of a population, in 1861, of forty-five thousand adult males; to which should be added the volunteers for the Confederate army, leaving at home scarcely an able-bodied man. This regiment was raised by Robert Johnson, a son of President (then Senator) Andrew Johnson, who soon surrendered his leadership to James P. Brownlow, a son of the then famous "Parson" Brownlow, of perfervid Southern rhetoric in his newspaper, which bore a distinguished part at the outset of the war in keeping his mountain country loyal to the Union. Much of the regiment's activity was on its own native soil, first under Morgan in seizing Cumberland Gap at a time when small victories fired the national heart, and later under Burnside in resisting Longstreet. It was also an honorable participant in the campaigns of middle Tennessee and Georgia, including Stone River, Chickamauga, the Atlanta campaign, and the destruction of Hood's army at Nashville.

'A Virginia Girl in the Civil War' (D. Appleton & Co.), edited by Myrta Lockett Avary, consists of some dramatic experiences of the girlish wife of a Confederate cavalry officer, mostly in and around Richmond. The story has many characteristic Southern superlatives, and here and there it would appear that accuracy had not been permitted to spoil a good story or an effective situation. But, altogether, the volume is a readable contribution to war history, and, moreover, is in an entirely "reconstructed" temper. This wife at seventeen years was compelled, from the outset of her married life, to share the terrors of war alike in the active participation of her husband in the campaigns of the Army of Virginia and in her own residence in the midst of siege and hospital. Her home at Petersburg received some of the first bolts of the besieging cannonade of 1864, and, with her non-combatant neighbors, she fled from house to house out of gunshot until driven to Richmond. Several times she visited her husband at the front and helped keep up the amenities of civilization, in winter quarters, for a group of cavalry generals, among them Stuart and W. H. F. Lee. She ran the blockade as far as Baltimore by crossing the river at Berlin on the Potomac, and returned after sundry hair-breadth escapes, in which gallant and kind-hearted Union officers, upon whom she lavishes praise, helped to smooth the difficulties; and the additional supplies thus smuggled into the poverty-stricken Confederacy were not of the sort to accuse these soft-hearted helpers of undue assistance in supplying the enemy, for the most valuable of her Northern purchases was a uniform for her ragged husband, which she and her companion had had made up into petticoats.

A new, enlarged, and (probably) final edition of Conan Doyle's 'The Great Boer War' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) adds eight chapters to the narrative which was reviewed in these columns two years ago. The size of the page and of the maps has been increased, and the details of the guerilla operations which followed the escape of President Kruger to Europe and the return to England of Lord Roberts in the autumn of 1900, have been described with as much of the spirit of the earlier history as can be put into an account of operations so fragmentary and so hopeless of changing the result as were the guerilla actions of the next year. Our former favorable estimate of the book is confirmed in the light of the many volumes which have been printed upon these campaigns before and since this work. It always endeavors to be fair, its criticisms are well put, its proportioning of praise and blame to both antagonists is as judicial as could be expected from the inevitable bias of an author who is speaking for his countrymen, and it derives a vigorous and picturesque style from the well-known literary art of the novelist.

The first of two volumes of the correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775, published by the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball, has appeared from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The material is taken principally from manuscripts in the Rhode Island archives; a few of the originals are in the John Carter Brown Library, and a few in the Rhode Island Historical Society Library. With rare exceptions, the letters (both to and from the Governors, together with enclosed documents) are now published for the first time. The spelling and punctuation of the originals have been followed. The first volume of 434 pages, which brings the correspondence down to 1746, contains some 250 letters and documents. About one-half of them deal wholly or mainly with military matters; about fifty with boundary disputes; about forty with currency legislation; about twenty with the Sugar Act and the customs. Other matters touched on are the negative, salary, elections, manufactures, the Draper outrage, colonial laws, impressment, and the Albany conference of 1744. The arrangement is chronological. The notes, which are comparatively few and to the point, together with the introduction of forty pages, give precisely the sort of supplementary aid one would most wish to have. Five illustrations accompany the text. The work was worth doing, and has been well done. It is to be hoped that the concluding volume will contain a careful topical index.

'Side-Lights on the Georgian Period,' by George Paston (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a collection of magazine articles that have previously appeared in the *Monthly Review*. The first, "A Burney Friendship," contains some hitherto unpublished letters of Fanny Burney's written before and after her marriage—letters that show her in no very amiable light. "London through French Eyeglasses" is an account of the experiences of a French tourist in the London of the middle of the 18th century. In his description of the gaming clubs, M. Grosley writes: "A Minister of State had recently passed twenty-four hours at a gaming-table, so absorbed in play that during the whole time he took no sustenance, except a bit of beef between two slices of toasted bread. This dish grew highly in vogue during my stay in London; it was called by the name of the Minister who invented it." Thus may one date the appearance of the sandwich. "An American in England" is a series of extracts from George Ticknor's account of his English experiences, and contains nothing that is new to his readers on this side of the Atlantic. In the article on "The Ideal Woman," Sydney Smith's saying is quoted that no woman would desert her infant for a quadratic section. There is no such thing as a quadratic section, so it would indeed be unlikely. For "section" read "equation" (p. 97). A less important slip is the spelling of Jack Sheppard's name on page 115, where it is given as "Shepherd." The book as a whole is hardly worth its excellent get-up. Written for a magazine, the articles have the magazine stamp, and might have remained in the seclusion of back numbers.

Sudermann's "Es lebe das Leben," which Mrs. Campbell has made familiar to our theatre audiences under the name of "The Joy of Living," has been brought out, under the same title, in a remarkably good translation by Edith Wharton (Scribners). The cleverness of construction, the raciness of dialogue, the up-to-dateness of thought, which distinguish this latest production of Sudermann's, come out perhaps more strongly still in its book form than on the stage; and so do its utter artificiality and lack of genuine feeling.

There is something pathetic in the earnestness displayed by Judge Max Eberhardt of Chicago in the attempt to maintain German sentiment, if not sentimentality, in the midst of practical, hustling American life. His 'Gedichte' (Chicago: Koelling & Klappenbach) reveal a kindly, sincere, high-minded type of character. From the point of view of technique, they are clearly amateurish.

Of the great Colonial Atlas, published by the German Government and edited by Paul Sprigarde and Max Moisel, the first number, on the Cameroons, appeared a year ago, and a second part has now been sent out covering all the German possessions in the Pacific Ocean and in China. This part contains six sheets, two covering German Guinea, on the scale of 1:2,000,000, and the others the remaining German territory on the scale of 1:3,000,000. The mechanical work has been done by the Reimer Chartographic Institute, in a model manner. The progress in our knowledge of these lands can best be seen by a comparison of the new charts with the Langhans Colonial Atlas. The third and concluding part of the Atlas is promised for the coming spring. The price of each part is only 3 marks.

The latest part issued of the 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ' is the ninth. It is announced that this great work has 1600 subscribers, scattered over the whole civilized world. It is appearing somewhat more slowly than was expected, but both its contents and form reflect honor on the sponsors of the undertaking, the German and the Vienna Academies of Sciences, and on its editor, Professor Vollmer of Munich, as also on the Teubner publication house. Of

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the first volume, which is to contain the letter A down to *an* (exclusive), 1,184 columns of 84 lines each have been printed, bringing it down to the unfinished article *affectuosus*. Of the second volume, beginning with *an*, 960 columns have appeared, closing at present with *asstringo*. The preposition *ad* extends from column 472 to 559, and will probably yet be surpassed by the article *in*.

On January 23 the Munich *Fliegende Blätter*, founded in 1843 by Kaspar Braun and Friedrich Schneider, and still published by their heirs, issued its three-thousandth number. This weekly journal not only is an exceedingly original organ of wit and humor, but also has a certain historical character, inasmuch as it affords an interesting survey of the evolution of the arts of design in Germany, and especially in Bavaria, during the last sixty years. With it are associated for more than two generations the names of celebrated painters, from Moritz von Schwind and Karl Spitzweg to E. Harburger, H. Stockmann, and Franz Simm, all three of whom furnish capital drawings for the festive number. Not less illustrious are the poets who have contributed to the text, and of whom we may mention Emanuel Geibel, Karl Stieler, Friedrich Bodenstedt, Wilhelm Hertz, Rosegger, Martin Greif, and Hermann Ling. It is no wonder that from such artistic and literary sources the stream should always flow fresh and full in the columns of the *Fliegende Blätter*, and its contents be distinguished for their charm and endless variety.

The nearly six hundred pages of the sixth volume of the Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.) testify to the new activity of this organization. The principal article in point of bulk is that on Suffrage and Reconstruction in the State, by the Hon. Frank Johnston, who fills one hundred pages. Next in measure comes the first annual report of the Director of Archives and History. It includes the nominations by popular vote of candidates for the Hall of Fame with which the new State Capitol is to be provided for portraits and statuary. As was to be expected, Jefferson Davis (14,452) leads the list, followed, however, closely by L. Q. C. Lamar, and two others whose admirers exceeded 14,000. Next after these (13,008) ranges S. S. Prentiss, which is a little surprising, and near him "Hangman" Foote. There is a decided slump with William Barksdale, Albert G. Brown; the Mexican war hero, Quitman; Robert J. Walker, etc. Portraits of many of these are in readiness for the hall, as well as of some not remembered by the voters.

The "John Brown letters" are continued in the January number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, and scarcely rise above the level of what has previously been published. There is much good anti-slavery sentiment printed for the first time and "exclusively" in a once slave State. Some of it is naturally endorsed "Improper." The lists of Brown's associates "as furnished me [Andrew Hunter] by Brown and Stephens" is defective; again naturally, in view of those who had escaped. A United States Marshal in Cleveland expresses his fear lest Brown's praise of his jailer's humanity cover a design of jail-breaking. Those in charge of the Harper's Ferry prisoners should be "proof against flattery and as true as steel." There is a facsimile of two autographs by an early Governor of Virginia, Sir George Yeardley, accompanying some particulars about him and transcripts of letters among the Ferrar Papers at Magdalene College, Cambridge. A searching review of Curtis's 'True Thomas Jefferson' concludes the issue.

For the same number, Mr. Edward Wilson James transcribes a list of slave owners in Westmoreland County, Va., in 1782, showing an average of about eleven slaves to each owner. "S. indicates slaves, and W. wheels of vehicles," reads the legend. In his own periodical, the *Lower Norfolk County (Va.) Antiquary*, Mr. James has a similar list for Princess Anne County in 1780, in which slaves and riding chairs are conjoined, the average number of slaves being four; another for 1860, when the average was about seven, but the record is mutilated. As late as 1859 there was a census of watches, which seem to have been mysteriously abundant.

The Canadian Boundary is the timely subject of the opening article, by Mr. John W. Foster, in the March number of the *National Geographic Magazine*. It is a brief historical review of the three courses of action, treaty adjustment, joint and equal commissions, and arbitration, by which the line has been adjusted and marked. From this it appears that "we have suffered less, in loss of territory claimed, by the action of joint commissions and by arbitration than by treaty settlement." Other articles are on the mountains of Unimak Island, Alaska, and on the development of Alaskan transportation facilities, both of which are illustrated. In view of the fact that the extension of a quarry in Genoa, Italy, necessitates the removal from his grave of the body of James Smithson, the eminently fitting suggestion is made that a permanent resting-place for his remains should be provided in the grounds of the Institution which he founded.

The progress of India under English rule is indicated by a report on its railways by our Consul-General at Calcutta, published in Consular Reports for February. There are now in operation about 26,000 miles of roads, and the revenue from them in 1901 amounted in round numbers to one hundred million dollars. As there was a surplus over running expenses of more than three million dollars, they may now be regarded as having ceased to be a burden to the state. Our consul at Harput tells of the introduction of a reaper in his district by a graduate of an American agricultural college, and the opposition which it caused among the laboring population. "His garden of American vegetables was destroyed, his fruit trees were cut down, shots were fired at his house during the night time, and his workmen were induced to desert him. In spite of all these discouragements, the experiment was pluckily continued to the close of the season. Another year will see the more widespread use of the reaper and the introduction of the thrashing machine." The German briquette industry is described by Consul-General Mason in an illustrated report, in which he states that a "Syndicate of Briquette Machinery Manufacturers" has been formed "to meet promptly and efficiently the American demand for machinery and working methods."

After repeated and vexatious delays, caused largely by a learned squabble among Italian historians, the great International Historical Congress has been called to meet in Easter week in Rome. The Government announces that for the period of two months, between March 1 and May 1, the members of the Congress, by merely presenting their membership cards, will be permitted to work at pleasure in any of the Italian state archives and libraries. King Victor Emmanuel has accepted the position of Honorary President of the Congress.

It has been practically decided that the great International Archæological Congress, which had been called to meet in Athens some time during the present year, will be postponed for at least twelve months. The Greek Archæological Society, which has the whole matter in charge, has come to the conclusion that the preparations for the convention will require more time, as these include such important undertakings as the restoration of the temple at Phigalia, of the Lion of Chæronea, of the Erechtheum, as also the renovation of the temple district of the Olympian Jupiter in Athens, and the completion of the diggings begun in Samos and several other localities. Some of these projects may consume even two years, and the president-elect of the Congress, Crown Prince Constantine, is to decide upon the exact date of the meeting.

—Quite the most significant paper in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March is that of Professor Hollis on Football. We shall say little more of it than that its weight comes from his moderation in censure; but we ask any reader of it to sum up the items of his "when all is said against football," and ask whether it is offset by his "much in its favor." Are not the moral evils as he presents them—"just enough of the prize fight in it to lay it open to suspicion," "the absence of chivalrous conduct," "it is customary to weaken an opponent by bruises or otherwise," dishonest selection of teams—visible and ponderable, while the teaching of "some of the manly virtues admirably," and exercising a moral restraint against drifting into dissipation, are in comparison imponderable? So they must seem to any one who takes into account also the gambling on the issue of the game, the usual rowdyism of the victors, the excesses encouraged by great crowds of youth being transported to strange cities beyond surveillance. Moreover, the evils acknowledged by Professor Hollis are sustained by a corrupt public opinion in the student body and are contagious—the public opinion, to speak plainly, of the mob of men of unformed principle. The dissipation of non-athletic days had, no doubt, its victims by contagion, but it never was condoned by the moral sentiment of the good; it never became respectable, or the thing. If, then, there has been an actual lowering of tone in the college world, can it be that the manly virtues have been strengthened in the mass? Some light is thrown on this inquiry by the discussion of "Seminars" in the same number of the magazine.

—Two volumes of the Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York (pp. 1,442) have been published by the State at Albany, reproducing in English what has generally been known as "The Amsterdam Correspondence," from 1621 to 1701. They

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comprise letters from clergymen and other Dutch gentlemen, and various persons in New Netherland, who wrote back to the old country concerning things ecclesiastical, political, economic, and social in the New World. The translations are printed in chronological order, with notes and explanations by the Rev. E. T. Corwin, D.D., the historian of the Reformed Church in America, with additions and comments by Mr. Hugh Hastings, State Historian. The existence and value of these documents have long been known to students of the Dutch origin of American history, but it is only within the past decade, through the liberality of some gentlemen in New York, that Dr. Corwin was sent to Holland, spending many months there in making critical examination and collation, and securing transcripts. The translation had been largely made by the late Dr. Daniel Van Pelt, whose lamented death by drowning was a sad loss to American scholarship in Dutch, in knowledge of which language most of our historiographers are disgracefully deficient. It is now being continued under Dr. Corwin's supervision by the Rev. Henry Utterwick.

—It is difficult to realize the great work done by the Classis of Amsterdam in the settling of the Middle States with industrious and intelligent people of good moral character. This association of ministers of the Reformed Church in the Netherlands had charge not only of the cosmopolitan community that had gathered in the Dutch republic, where conscience was free, and thence emigrated, but also over nearly all colonists from the Continent to America. Coming down the rivers Maas and Rhine from the heart of Europe, they took ship at Rotterdam or Amsterdam, and had often to be assisted with money, food, and clothing. Until early in the past century, both the Germans and the Dutch of the Reformed Communion in America were under the direction of the Classis of Amsterdam. Thus, in the present publication and the two volumes to come, we have records of general public interest. One who reads these documents (especially if he ignores the annotation and comment of twentieth-century Americans) with knowledge of the background of Dutch history out of which they grew, gets an idea of New Netherland curiously different from either the Washington-Irving sort, or the after-dinner speeches at the Holland Society gatherings. One sees that, beside the rough sailors and traders from many lands gathered in a cosmopolitan seaport, the snarling and incompetent officials dressed in a little brief authority, and clergymen more anxious for orthodoxy and personal comfort than for close imitation of their Master, there was, in the valleys of the Hudson, Mohawk, and Raritan, a solid core of diligent, God-fearing, and moral people. These latter, for the most part, remained after the floating elements of the population returned to Holland on account of the English conquest of 1664. The learning and culture of the university-bred dominie are evident. Though others may make a similar claim, yet the facts seem to show that the first ordination of a Protestant clergyman in North America was that (on October 9, 1679) of the Rev. Petrus Tesschenmacker, who, in 1690, when pastor at Schenectady, was killed in the massacre by the French and Indians. The event gave rise to much correspondence, not only for political reasons, New York being then under the English Governor Andros, but because the candidate was a follower of Voet, the conservative, while the three examining ministers were of the school of Coccejus, since recognized as "the father" of biblical or modern theology. Very practical is the recommendation in 1701 that ministers living among the Indians should have, "besides other qualifications, a little skill also in physick and chirurgery." Evidences of the intense jealousy and vigilance of the Dutch clergy and people in resisting the attempted encroachments of the Anglican state church, and in maintenance of their freedom of conscience and the forms of the Reformed Church, are found on many pages. It is hard to see how any one professing to write on the early history of the Empire State can ignore these volumes.

—The sixth volume, last but one, of the Variorum Edition of the Writings of Edward FitzGerald (Doubleday, Page & Co.) contains the 'Œdipus,' the 'Bird-Parliament,' and the 'Suffolk Sea-Phrases' with related communications to *East Anglian* and *Notes and Queries*. These etymological diversions form part of the distinction of Mr. Bentham's collection, and it is a pity that he is debarred from joining with them the Letters, which are "now and again" (to use a Suffolk phrase) illuminated by similar glosses. The same humor vivifies both. Here is the chapter on "*Complain:* A ship or boat begins to *complain* when her nails, seams, or timbers begin to give way. Almost as good a phrase," adds FitzGerald with a wink, "as 'beginning to show symptoms of deterioration,' etc." And again: "*Burn:* 'How the sea burn!' what you now hear children talk of as 'being in a state of phosphorescence.' Which is best?" Of "*Poker Beer:* Beer heated with a red-hot poker; about a pint to a poker, I am told. There are worse things, and, as Lamb said, better." Here one comes upon another definition of *smell the ground*, so often recurring in the Letters of FitzGerald's later years. And here is his "Michael-Angelo-made fellow," "Posh," who ranks in the Letters beside Thackeray and Tennyson for greatness, but who had a seaman's distrust of hoofed animals, assuring his partner in the lugger *Meum and Tuum* that "he didn't mind a cow, but 'wasn't by no means *wrapt up* in a bullock.'" As in previous volumes, we have MS. interlineations and corrections upon the printed copy; for instance, on page 9, where, by the way—and hardly by the way in such beautiful letterpress—would not FitzGerald with some impatience have applied his pencil to this mammocking of his preface to the 'Œdipus' in line two—"banishment will be sufficient accomplished by the Oracle" (read, "accomplishment of")?

—The first two volumes of the handsome reunion of Mr. Aldis Wright's several editions of Edward FitzGerald's Writings (Macmillan) were ornamented with portraits of the author. Towards the close of the second volume, the letters to Fanny Kemble began to make their appearance, and the third volume appropriately has her portrait for frontispiece, after Sully's painting. We again get nothing but the Letters in the text, in that period when failing eyesight and other symptoms of the end still considerably deferred led the recluse to put his literary house in order, look over his old letters, and place in good hands such as had historic value—doubtless also to destroy much. His literary executor in his turn had to spare the feelings of the living, and many blanks reveal Mr. Wright's forbearance in this regard. Occasionally they may denote simple repetition which was not worth while; but then, again, repetition abounds in the treatment of the same topic for different correspondents, and such is the variety of angle thus afforded that the visual effect is truly stereoscopic. Herein is revealed the immense gain of the chronological order. We could wish that the editor had been willing to bestow a little more pains in reordering the footnotes. That on page 40 was to be looked for on page 38; that about Carlyle's niece on page 193 on page 191; so, that about Pasta on page 130 comes late. This care was merited by a body of letters which must ever rank among the highest. Always chary in his praise of female genius, FitzGerald singles out Mrs. Trench's letters as excellent—"so far as I can see and judge, next best to Walpole and Cowper in our Language." And it is noticeable what delight he took at the last in Mme. de Sévigné's, read between Scott and Cervantes.

—Prof. Chauvin's treatment of the 'Arabian Nights,' in his 'Bibliographie des Ouvrages Arabes,' is extending beyond ordinary bibliographical limits, and is becoming a thesaurus of folk-lore of primary importance. The first part, previously noticed, contains the strict bibliographical element; the second and third parts contain résumés, often very full, of the tales embodied in the different recensions—MSS., original texts, translations—or in the companion and related collections. At least another part will be needed to complete the work. The résumés are arranged in the alphabetical order of some leading word in the title; each is preceded by a statement of the MSS. in which the tale occurs, of the printed texts, of the translations, and of the parallel tales existing elsewhere and not borrowed from the 'Nights.' After each comes a bibliography—wonderfully full—of references to that tale, literary use of it in Europe, and, above all, to its place in folk-lore. This last is, perhaps, the outstanding feature of the book, and is especially rich on the Oriental side. The width and accuracy of Prof. Chauvin's reading cannot be too highly praised; he is doing more towards the elucidation of the 'Nights' than any one since Zotenberg's epoch-marking book.

—The following corrections and additions suggest themselves: In Part II., page 67, the relation of "Aladdin" to the German *Volksbuch*, "Das Schloss in der Höhle Xa Xa," should be examined more carefully; it is very close, by no means *éloigné*, and suggests that the story reached Germany through Italy. Page 201, Prof. Chauvin apparently has not noticed that the story of the third Calender is complete in the Calcutta text; we are not thrown back upon Galland for it. Page 220 ("The Money-changer of Baghdad"), there should have been a reference to the article on Ibn al-Ahnaf and his fortunate verses by Prof. C. C. Torrey, in the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, volume xvi.;

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it is a very significant study of the origin of a minor tale. Page 231, "Ed. Poë" will hardly suggest Edgar Allan Poe. Page 256, the story of the fate of the Queen of Serpents, and of the use made of her body, is very remarkably paralleled in J. G. Campbell's 'Superstitions of the Highlands of Scotland' (p. 224). Part iii., page 48, it is rather singular, seeing that Prof. Chauvin has made some studies in Muslim theology and jurisprudence, that he should question the extent to which tales of the Jinn were believed in the days of Harun ar-Rashid. Harun would have been an unbeliever in Islam itself if he had doubted the existence of these beings and the possibility of intercourse between them and mankind. Books of law to this day take account of their rights and duties. Page 68, story 234 touches the European legend of the ring of Venus and the midnight procession of Pluto. An Arabic parallel which Prof. Chauvin has missed is in ad-Damiri's "Hayat al-haywan" (i., pp. 185 f. of the edition of Cairo, 1313). There the great Sufi saint Abd al-Qadir al-Jilani acts as the magician, and gives to a father, whose daughter has been mysteriously carried off, a letter to the Sultan of the Jinn. The father waits for the procession from nightfall on among the mounds in the ruined part of the quarter of Baghdad called al-Karkh; at dawn the Sultan of the Jinn passes. Again J. G. Campbell, in his 'Witchcraft and Second Sight' (p. 200), gives a curious parallel from the West Highlands of Scotland with Michael Scott as magician. Page 91, on the story of the treasure of Toledo, Prof. Chauvin does not mention what is probably its most important echo in European literature, Scott's 'Vision of Don Roderick.' It is to be hoped that the final part of this bibliography will soon appear, and with it full indices and exact references to the books used. "Kunos, Turkish Tales," for example, is very blind; it appears to refer to an English form of the tales published first in Hungarian and then in German in the *Ungarische Revue*, 1888-89. So monumental a work as this deserves to be rounded to full completion.

DRUMMOND'S MARTINEAU.

The Life and Letters of James Martineau, LL.D., S.T.D., etc. By James Drummond, M.A., LL.D. And a Survey of his Philosophical Work, by C. B. Upton, B.A., B.Sc. With portraits. In two volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co.

There is little good or bad in this work of 979 pages but thinking makes it so. We mean by this that even the biographical part, which exhausts the first volume and extends far into the second, is hardly less a study of Martineau's thought than the part (vol. ii., pp. 255-483) which is devoted expressly to an analysis of his intellectual activity. Mr. Jackson's recent 'Study and Biography' of Martineau was blamed for its lack of biographical interest, and it was plain enough that he had a better gift for exhibiting Martineau's ideas than for telling the story of his life; but it is now equally plain that the fault was more in his material than in his presentation. Dr. Drummond's talent for biographical writing is not remarkable, and it is conceivable that another might have done better with the sources at his command, but he has had the same difficulty to contend with that Mr. Jackson had—the defect of Martineau's life on the side of personal interest apart from its intellectual expression. These volumes are, indeed, rich in letters where Mr. Jackson's 'Study' made no attempt to furnish any, but it must be confessed that these letters do not make us much better or more pleasantly acquainted with the man than do his various books. Even when most personal, they tend to become sermons or essays, not only in their manner, but in their length. Martineau wrote a great many letters, and there is something beautiful and touching in the conscientiousness of his discharge of his epistolary obligations; but, for letter-writing as a peculiar literary species having many excellent varieties, he had as little faculty as Tennyson, whose weakness at this point was as conspicuous as FitzGerald's strength. Long letters may be good letters, but Martineau's are not merely long: they are elaborate disquisitions, devoid of humor, ease, and playfulness, and of those unconsidered trifles which go far to make one's letters live when the writer has forever laid aside his pen. Even those written to persons in deep sorrow, to which Dr. Drummond has a noticeable gravitation, are as much too labored as they are too long. A hand-clasp in ten words would have better served his end.

Martineau's life, as presented in these pages, impresses us as never before with its intensive quality. A corresponding extensive quality he did not possess. Where he was most at home, his range was less remarkable than his penetration; the absence of Hegel from his 'Types of Ethical Theory' being a notable case in point. It is significant that in 1878, when FitzGerald's translation was a matter of twenty years' standing and several editions, Martineau writes to Dr. Furness, answering his enthusiastic commendation of Omar Khayyám, that he has no knowledge of him. The same letter proves that if he was less ignorant than Spencer of Indian philosophy, he was not less indifferent to it. "The study of it," he says, "is mere taskwork to me." These instances are typical. He might be indifferent to Indian philosophy, but his was the absorption of an Indian yogi in his favorite studies and his chosen line of philosophical and religious exposition. His affections were not literary, except as they required of him a manner of writing which was more remarkable for its brilliancy than for its luminosity, and which often has a vertiginous effect upon the reader who should be at his best to follow his teacher through those mazes where he leads the way. Because of this limitation on the literary side, we have here no wealth of allusion to all sorts and conditions of books and authors. For another lack, we are quite sure that the biographer is more to blame than Martineau himself—the lack of vital apprehension on Martineau's part of the social and political interests of his time. We are very certain that we have here defective representation, and also that the turbid stream of general theological controversy must have left more silt upon the surface of his mind than is here made apparent.

With so little to vary the even tenor of Martineau's course of life, we are in danger of making too much of the little that was episodical, and especially of the unfortunate rupture in the affectionate relations which for a long time existed between Martineau and his sister Harriet. There is loyal defence of their mother from the aspersions of a certain biographer of Harriet (Mrs. Fenwick Miller), which were much sharper than her own; and, indeed, it is out of Harriet's own mouth that her biographer is sufficiently condemned. But we cannot imagine why Dr. Drummond did not print entire Martineau's letter to the *Daily News* in 1885 touching this matter and that of the unhappy estrangement of the brother and sister. Of this estrangement we have Martineau's own account and Dr. Drummond's comment, which, wherever it touches the relations of James Martineau and Harriet, is as considerate as possible, yet not without some lack of apprehension and of representation. It is made plain that the estrangement originated in circumstances far back of Martineau's review of the Atkinson 'Letters,' in his refusal to return to Harriet letters that she had written him through the course of many years. He told her that if he "must choose between unknown future communications and the inestimable treasures of the past, his decision must be to keep what he had," etc. Dr. Drummond's appreciation of the quality of this decision, as well as Martineau's, appears to us to be greatly wanting. It was certainly a strange resolve of brotherly affection that preferred a future of non-intercourse (Harriet's terms) to the surrender of a package of old letters. As for Martineau's review of the Atkinson book, Dr Drummond's condonation of it is far more sensitive to its shortcomings than Martineau's. He calls it scathing, and says: "No impartial reader can wonder that Miss Martineau was pained." Martineau wrote, "In one sentence only is my sister mentioned." But he resembled his sister strongly in having a memory that played him tricks. (He had a vivid recollection of Theodore Parker's preaching, which he had never heard!) Dr. Drummond explains that there were four references to Harriet in the review, but the one which Martineau remembered was quite enough—a lion with the sharpest claws; and Dr. Drummond should have given it for the assistance of the judgment of the less informed. Moreover, Martineau's account of the circumstances which led to his undertaking the review was not confirmed by that of the other editors, and certainly he should not have permitted any urgency on their part to force him into the assumption of a task so manifestly ungracious and so sure to carry painful consequences in its train.

Another episode, which assumes greater prominence because of the general level of uneventfulness from which it springs, is that relating to Martineau's election to his professorship in Manchester New College in spite of violent opposition. Martineau's later prominence was so much that of a defender of certain traditional conceptions in religion against the radicalism of science, that it is rather difficult for a younger generation to appreciate the fact that, midway of the century, he was regarded by his Unitarian brethren for the most part as a very dangerous heretic. It was in this character that his election to the professorship of Manchester New College, a Unitarian theological seminary, was op-

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posed. It is interesting to notice that when, much further on, he was an unsuccessful candidate for a philosophical chair in London University, the opposition came from those who had arrived at philosophical constructions more radical than his own, Grote the historian heading it; and even John Stuart Mill, who at once recognized Martineau's ability and was friendly to his person, "could not miss the opportunity of planting a disciple of his own school in a place of influence." The Archbishop of York objected that Martineau did not believe in the doctrine of the Trinity. Martineau wrote, "In this spectacle, of Mr. Mill and the Archbishop moving hand in hand, under the common guidance of a sectarian motive, there is a curious irony."

There was more curious irony in Grote's objection to Martineau as the minister of a religious sect, seeing that Martineau's endeavor to free himself from any sectarian implication was the most persistent endeavor of his life. Lessing said that he should hate truth itself if it could form a sect, and Martineau could heartily concur. It was this aspect of his life that involved him in more misunderstanding than any other, much of which cannot but appear to have been wilful blindness. Much has been said to the effect that he was not a Unitarian, as if this signified a preference for more orthodox ideas. The whole tenor of these volumes, and hundreds of special statements in the course of them, should so set this matter right that only the most stupid need ever doubt again as to his actual position. He was a Unitarian in his personal theology, but he did not believe in any doctrinal test or bond of fellowship whatever. It was not as more orthodox, but as less orthodox, than his Unitarian brethren that he objected to their creed and became to them an object of suspicion. But any creed was to him an impossible basis of religious fellowship. He was curiously sensitive to the technical meaning of the word Unitarian, and insensitive to its historical associations. It was as if his exigency here exhausted all his store, for on other lines he had little difficulty in giving an expansive meaning to old words. He did not, for example, believe that Jesus thought himself to be the Christ, yet he used the word Christ without hesitation, and, with surprising violence to his undogmatic ideal of church fellowship, wrote that he could not find any adequate church fellowship in a religious society which discarded it. For most of us the connotations of a word are so much more vital and important than its mere denotation, that it is hard for us to imagine Martineau preferring the name Presbyterian for his ideal religious organization.

But the events of Martineau's life were his sermons and his essays and his books, and to these, in their due order and progression, Dr. Drummond has attended in a careful and instructive manner, sometimes embarrassed by the consciousness that Dr. Upton is to follow up the biography with a "Survey of Dr. Martineau's Philosophical Work." If there is any defect in this noble and exhaustive presentation, it is that the emphasis rests unduly upon Martineau's writing over and above his Liverpool and London sermons. Dr. Drummond does not seem to share in the impression of R. H. Hutton that Martineau's sermons are the works by which he will be longest named and known. Not that he has for them any hesitating or doubtful commendation, but it was inevitable that the bias of his own professorship should be favorable to Martineau's philosophical preëminence. It is interesting to find Dr. Drummond frankly demurring at Martineau's ideal sermon as a lyrical expression overheard. Martineau could not conceive of the generation of the thoughts and aspirations of a true sermon except in solitude. Dr. Drummond contends that the best thoughts are often kindled by the preacher's contact with his congregation. But it is quite impossible to imagine those subtile nuances which gave to Martineau's sermons their characteristic force and beauty as produced in any mood but that of brooding solitude. The wonder is that he could publicly repeat the thoughts which visited his solemn privacy.

There are many aspects of these volumes which invite attention, but to dwell on them would make this review too long. The characterizations of different men, Carlyle, Jowett, Parker, Emerson, and so on, are clear and fine. Martineau was much troubled by Emerson's lack of continuity. Writing of Thomas Hill Green's "curious type of vague or semi-theism," he uses one of those splendid metaphors into which his thought so easily ran, and which are for some the glory of his style, for others its despair: "It is either the last faint streak of a dissolving nebula, or the first visible undulation of an ethereal medium that must condense into a central sun." Of the various groups of letters, the most interesting are those to R. H. Hutton, who transferred his theological allegiance from Martineau to Maurice; and those to Francis W. Newman, who marvels at Martineau's sympathetic appreciation of John Henry Newman's mind. No difference of opinion could be more trying to Martineau's sensibility than F. W. Newman's, with its impeachment of the moral perfection of Jesus; but the toughness of his friendship bore even this fearful strain. He recognized that he and Newman reverenced the same ideals, and differed only as to whether those ideals were or were not embodied in the character of an historic person.

The American reader whose memory goes back to the great war will regret that Martineau's correspondence falls silent on its threshold. We should have had here his letters to Dr. Furness and Dr. J. H. Allen, with their careful explanations of his lack of sympathy with the North in its great struggle, the more remarkable as he had clearly apprehended the merits of the struggle in its earlier stages. It is interesting to find Dr. Dewey, in 1844, applauding Martineau's refusal to sign the English anti-slavery address to the American Unitarians. But Dr. Dewey's applause was resented:

"My dear Dewey, what business have you among the ranks of those who have nothing but dollars and doubts to plead against the primary claims of Nature and the Human Soul? . . . Channing began with objecting to the Abolitionists; so did Emerson; so did you. The future age will reckon all three among the most powerful agents of Emancipation—will it not?"

This seems to invite Dr. Dewey to become an Abolitionist, but in a subsequent letter Martineau writes that he never wished him to become one. Was the previous outburst a mere flourish of rhetoric? He cannot, however, see any logic in Dr. Dewey's opposition to the annexation of Texas, together with his denial of responsibility for the existence of slavery in the Southern States.

There are many expressions of Martineau's opinion touching vital matters that must be dismissed without a word. And it is impossible in this space to give any adequate idea of his theological development from a crude supernaturalism to a religion of personal conviction, or of his often disappointed, steadily renewed, endeavor to realize an organization of religion in which the freedom of the spirit should be superior to all dogmatic tests.

Dr. Upton's "Survey of Dr. Martineau's Philosophical Work" is a book by itself deserving separate treatment. To those whose interest in Martineau is mainly philosophical, it will address itself as more important than Dr. Drummond's biography. Remembering some unhandsome English criticisms of Mr. Jackson's 'Study,' it is confirmatory of our good opinion of that book that Dr. Upton frequently refers to it and quotes it in terms of high respect. Than Dr. Upton no one could be better fitted for the task which he has faithfully performed. He was first Dr. Martineau's pupil, then on his teaching staff for ten years, and for twenty years he went annually to spend two or three weeks of his vacation with Martineau in his Highland home, matching sometimes the mountain climb with a more steep ascent of speculative thought. His appreciation of Martineau's system is as perfect as this ample acquaintance with him would lead us to expect. It consists of nine chapters, the first of which deals with Martineau's early adhesion to Hartley on materialistic and necessarian lines. Many have wondered that Martineau's "Priestley," preserved in his 'Essays,' shows so little sign of his early sympathy with Priestley's opinions. Here they may learn that the early study has been changed from time to time to meet the exigencies of Martineau's changing thought, losing in this way its character as representative of Martineau's early mind. The successive chapters treat of Martineau's lectures in Manchester New College, his early reviews, his mature period of study in Germany, his 'Essays, Reviews, and Addresses,' his part in the Metaphysical Society, his 'Types of Ethical Theory,' his 'Study of Religion,' and his 'Study of Spinoza.' Under the last head we have Dr. Upton's criticism of Martineau's treatment of pantheism and determinism.

Dr. Upton's criticism of Martineau's opinions is the more interesting because he now and then parts company with him. He cannot, for instance, accept his ideas of space and matter as "data objective to God." One sometimes hears that Martineau outgrew these conceptions, but Dr. Upton does not confirm the rumor. He finds Martineau more nearly in agreement with Lotze than with any other philosopher, and he clearly indicates their approximations, and forecasts the philosophy of the near future as one that shall blend their systems in a convincing unity. There is something very inspiring in his account of Martineau's system, as there is in Dr. Drummond's story of Martineau's consecration of his life to its elaboration and defence. What it made for was the stable equilibrium of God, Matter, and Man, neith-

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er swallowing up the other, in the fashion of pantheism, materialism, or idealism, and above all for the freedom of man's will in opposition to the necessarianism which at first attracted him in Hartley and Priestley, and which later not even the younger Mill's refinement of the doctrine could make satisfactory to him, any more than Sidgwick's refinement of Bentham's utilitarianism could make him a utilitarian once more. Whether his favorite conceptions stand or fall, they will never have more splendid advocacy than he brought to them for fifty earnest and impassioned years.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

A Text-Book of Inorganic Chemistry. By Dr. A. F. Holleman. Rendered into English by Hermon C. Cooper, Ph.D. John Wiley's Sons. 1902. Pp. viii, 458.

The Principles of Inorganic Chemistry. By Wilhelm Ostwald. Translated by Alexander Findlay, Ph.D. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xxvii, 785.

Of the many text-books of inorganic chemistry which have appeared during the past few years, the two whose titles are above given deserve special consideration as the first serious attempts to treat the subject from the standpoint of the new theories of physical chemistry. Although Holleman's work was published in the original Dutch in 1898 and in a German translation in 1900, and Ostwald's in German in 1900, these translations, which bring them to the more immediate attention of English-reading chemists, both bear the imprint of the year just elapsed. And let us remark at the outset that the translations are on the whole very good, and have an added trustworthiness from the fact that in both cases the proof was read by the authors.

Professor Holleman's book may be briefly described as a Chemistry much after the usual type, with dissertations on theory interpolated here and there; the author's plan being to insert these chapters "in suitable places" for subsequent reference. The ten-page account of Van't Hoff's generalization and the methods for finding molecular weights from the depression of the freezing point and the elevation of the boiling point, follows the description of hydrogen peroxide (page 56), whose molecular weight cannot be determined by the vapor density method, but may be found by the depression of the freezing point of a dilute solution; the theory of electrolytic dissociation follows the study of the halogen acids; the phase rule is treated in connection with sulphur; nine pages are devoted to thermochemistry after the oxygen group is disposed of; fifteen pages following the alkali metals deal with the properties of salt solutions and the theory of indicators, while a chapter of similar length after mercury is given to the discussion of electrochemistry. Occasional applications of these theories are made in the descriptive text. The latter is concise, clear, and up to date, but for the most part dry and perfunctory, and unusually barren of illustrative experiments.

Whatever may be thought of the suitableness of the places chosen for the introduction of the chapters on theory, and it is certainly open to criticism, we do not believe that Professor Holleman's scheme is to the advantage of the student. These theoretical discussions, which in themselves form a fair outline of the modern views, are taken up before the necessity for them is likely to be felt or their bearing adequately appreciated; and in the pages on thermodynamics as applied to chemistry, if nowhere else, the treatment is too advanced for the average first-year student in chemistry. In the hands of a judicious teacher, however, who uses the book as an outline of facts and for reference rather than as a text-book, it may do good service.

The method which Professor Ostwald has chosen for the solution of the difficulties attending the introduction of theory into general inorganic chemistry is a very different one from Holleman's. A protagonist of the new physical chemistry and possessing recognized literary skill, Ostwald is eminently qualified for such an undertaking. The present work is the result of long consideration; the first sketch dating back, as he states in his preface, "double the time designated by Horace as necessary for the maturing of a literary work." He has endeavored to retain "as much as possible of the approved forms," and to incorporate the new notions and theories of scientific chemistry in such a way that the subject shall be presented wholly from the modern point of view. The book is written with the needs of the student rather than of the teacher as determinative in the treatment, and the subject is carefully developed in an orderly and logical manner. General discussions are introduced only when pertinent facts have paved the way, and as a consequence the same question is taken up repeatedly when the material displayed on its first introduction is inadequate for full treatment. For instance, osmotic pressure is not mentioned until page 657, where a brief account of Van't Hoff's generalization is given, although the empirical facts in regard to the effect of dissolved substances on vapor pressure, boiling and freezing temperatures, are stated on page 133 in connection with a discussion of water as a solvent, and the application of these facts to the determination of molecular weights is made a little further on. In no place does the discussion of theory go beyond a mere outline in simplest form, the complete and connected treatment being left for the more advanced student.

In this respect Ostwald's book is in marked contrast with Holleman's. Theoretical notions are brought forward only as the phenomena already described demand explanation, and then only in such elementary form as may serve to satisfy the necessities of the student's knowledge of that point. The method is well conceived for the stimulation and maintenance of the student's interest, and one must admire the skill with which the inherent difficulties of the plan have been overcome

The rapid and successful development of the new conceptions of physical chemistry by enthusiastic workers has done much to broaden our views of the chemical behavior of substances and to make chemistry a more exact science. But it is at least doubtful whether it is wise to confront the student with anything like complete statements and discussions of these rather difficult theories at the outset of his course, before a sufficient number of chemical facts and relations have been properly appreciated by class-room and laboratory experience. A few simple theoretical notions are pertinent and indeed indispensable almost from the start; but the time-honored practice of leaving the fuller discussion of theory until the ground has been well prepared by a year or two of study, would seem to be much the more rational plan of instruction.

Ostwald's work is always characterized by independence of tradition, and one expects to find some peculiarities of treatment and of emphasis. This volume does not disappoint the expectation. In the paragraphs on the atomic "hypothesis," stress is laid on the tentative character of this speculation: "One must be always prepared for the fact that sooner or later the reality will be different from that which the picture leads one to expect. Especially, when any other well-founded speculation leads to a variance with the atomic hypothesis, one must not on that account regard the speculation as wrong. The blame can quite well attach to the hypothesis." In spite of the fact that the hypothesis agrees entirely with experiment, and "even at the present day rules almost exclusively in chemistry," being of "great value for purposes of instruction and investigation," the author prefers, in "the interest of the science," to employ its terms "as sparingly as ever the present usage of language will permit." Accordingly, the reader finds no "atomic weights" in the book, but the familiar figures of the atomic-weight tables appear as "combining weights." To guard the student still further from the danger of entangling hypotheses, "molar weight" is substituted for "molecular weight," since the latter "is derived from certain hypothetical notions regarding the constitution of gases, notions which are not essential to the actual facts."

In contrast to this exaggerated caution in regard to such older theories, the hypothesis of electrolytic dissociation is given with no hint of the peril which may attend the student's possible confusion of "picture" and "reality." Ions and "moles" swarm in the pages from which atoms and molecules have been banished. The phenomena of catalysis receive a good deal of attention, and are "explained" by the assumption that all possible chemical reactions go on at all temperatures, though often at such extremely slow rates that they entirely escape detection, and that the catalyser is a substance which accelerates the reaction as fresh oil hastens the movement of wheel-work retarded by friction. The analogy extends to the fact that neither oil nor catalyser is used up in acting.

The work is decidedly the most interesting of recent treatises on inorganic chemistry, and everywhere stimulating and suggestive. It is worthy of remark that in neither of these two books in which theory figures so largely, is much stress laid on the periodic system. Both give an account of it—Holleman has thirteen pages in the middle of the volume, and Ostwald five pages at the end; but in neither is the system formally made the basis for the classification of the material, as is the case in some other recent text-books. Ostwald says of it: "We are here not dealing with a law of nature in the strict sense, but with a prin-

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ciple of classification of not very exactly defined things. . . . We know only a certain and in part somewhat arbitrarily cut section of the great organism of chemical facts," and "must not therefore be surprised if in this chance section we cannot gain a view of the laws ruling the whole organism." And Holleman, while recognizing the importance of its discovery, goes on to say: "It is gradually becoming more evident that the system in its present form represents the relations of the elements merely in an approximate way, and is only a crude first attempt at a real system."

RECENT NOVELS.

The Little White Bird; or, Adventures in Kensington Gardens. By J. M. Barrie. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Blue Flower. By Henry Van Dyke. Charles Scribner's Sons.

John Ermine of the Yellowstone. By Frederic Remington. The Macmillan Co.

In the Garden of Charity. By Basil King. Harpers.

The Squireen. By Shan F. Bullock. McClure, Phillips & Co.

According to Mr. Barrie, Kensington Gardens after dark become an actual fairyland. From sunset to sunrise the malls and meadows and waters are alive with nixies and pixies and elfs and goblins, all abandoned to the dance, yet by no means neglecting their serious business of directing mortal destiny. Chief among them is Peter Pan, a delightful sprite, who, being half bird, half boy, is called a "Betwixt and Between." This descriptive epithet may be applied equally to the book in which Peter Pan is celebrated—it is not a real story or a fairy story, not a good book or a bad book—just a Betwixt and Between. Mr. Barrie appears to have written 'The Little White Bird' in a frenzy of baby worship, and he proves beyond any shadow of doubt that woman's passion for the baby, like her other passions, when compared with man's, is as water unto wine. The bachelor Major who directs little David's adventures in Kensington Gardens, dotes more fondly, indeed more shamelessly, than any proud and perfect mother in the land. The Major must have been drawn from Mr. Barrie's inner consciousness. He can have had no opportunity to observe such a major, whose companion warriors (though retired) would have felt it a duty and a point of honor to shoot him rather than let him expose his disordered sensibilities to a scribbling fellow in search of copy. Mr. Barrie gently derides the Major's extravagant sentimentality. Nevertheless, it is plain that he also deeply delights in it, and has no notion that he has written many pages of sad drivel. By way of compensation there are some beautiful chapters revealing the ways of fairies and their affinity with children. With these creatures of the borderland his imagination is at home, and works with rare freedom, purity, and delicacy.

Dr. Van Dyke's tales are avowedly symbolical and allegorical. His theme is the human longing for the ideally perfect, always alluring, always eluding, beautifully symbolized in the 'Blue Flower' of Novalis. Imaginative writers who powerfully stir the lethargic soul, get their effect by a transmission of sensation. Their message is interpreted through feeling more than understanding, and is most inspiring when it is least capable of clear explanation. So profound a symbolist as Maeterlinck relies for comprehension almost entirely on responsive sensation. No one can ever know and explain clearly what he means, but some can feel with great certainty. By far the greater number can neither know nor feel, therefore they jeer; which is easy but not conclusive. Dr. Van Dyke does not get the strongest effect of imaginative symbolism. His work is too cold, too merely intelligent and intelligible, to produce a passionate sensation or haunting impression. It is imaginable that many people read his stories chiefly for the sake of the incident or situation; and, if disturbed at all by the recognition of an inner significance, not specially uplifted or excited thereby. Yet Dr. Van Dyke's popularity is a good sign of the times. There is nothing feeble about his stories. They are strongly imagined and dramatic. They show several sorts of knowledge — knowledge theoretical and knowledge practical, of places and things and life. It may be this conspicuousness of general excellence that forbids the tribute of higher praise.

Mr. Remington is not an accomplished novelist, but he is a very good descriptive writer, and can draw a horse, an Indian, or a cowboy in words almost as vividly as with a pencil. His story 'John Ermine' is therefore more interesting and valuable as fact than as fiction. It is history (probably authentic) of the times when civilization and law were represented in the Far West by scattered army posts, when the buffalo still roamed freely over the plains, and when the whoop of the "Crow Injun" was a frequent menace to the security of the advancing white man. The figure of John Ermine is romantic, and his fate tragic. The girl for whom he died is singularly unworthy of sacrifice, but this fact does not detract from the probability of Ermine's character and conduct, which is excellently sustained throughout.

Mr. Basil King's new book has nothing in common with 'Let Not Man Put Asunder,' on which it is a decided improvement. It is as though Mr. King, having composed an Iliad of feminine caprice and faithlessness, were here atoning by an Odyssey in which all the honors go to the heroine. Charity Byfleet, whose garden with its old English flowers is a rare spot of color on the long, gray, indented shores of the Nova Scotian coast, is the Penelope of the tale. There for eleven years she waits the return of her fickle soldier husband, who had left her for the war three months after her marriage. He meanwhile has been cast ashore during his home-coming and has met with the inevitable Calypso, at Portuguese Point on the coast. The story runs the regular course of the Odyssey, but William Pennland is not a man of many devices, nor does his Calypso prove as amenable as her original. Hagar Levanti, in revenge for his desertion and his threatened return to his wife, rows him out to a small island and leaves him there, without supplies, for a full week. But would a woman as passionately attached to a man as was Hagar Levanti have the strength of mind to live for a week in sight of that island, knowing that the man she loved was dying slowly of starvation? Meanwhile, Charity arrives in time to see her husband die, forgives her rival all, even the murder, and the two women agree to live together and bring up Hagar's child. Apart from the improbabilities, and allowing for a slight overdose of the sentimental, the book is not without interest. The lives of the Nova Scotian fishermen in their cottages on the coast are well described, and there is a considerable display of humor among the minor characters.

Those who know and love Ireland will read Mr. Bullock's tale of pastoral life for the sake of his descriptions rather than for any intrinsic interest in his characters, though they are typical enough. His scene is laid in Ulster, and he dwells on the contrast between Gorteen, "Protestant and fruitful," and the surrounding district, "Catholic and bare." Once you pass the confines and enter the Protestant section,

> "Hedges become trim, lanes and fields orderly, houses neat, offices clean, crops flourishing. You meet fewer stragglers and no beggar men. Pigs keep their styes; goats and donkeys are missed from the wayside. An air of prosperity is abroad, of industry and rude comfort, of independence also, and a more rigid rule of life. The country seems blessed of God, slavery and terror banished from its confines."

After this introduction, one expects Mr. Bullock to develop the illustration of that painful and unavoidable contrast which prevails in Ireland, of Protestant thrift and Catholic mendicancy. But the two families of small proprietors who furnish his characters are both rigid Protestants, of an orthodoxy the more unyielding because of the proximity of "Popery"; "with a Bible on every parlor table and orange lilies in every garden." Mr. Bullock's story illustrates rather that fatal tendency, inherent in so many Irish, to fitful industry and lack of grip on circumstances. It is a painful study of the gradual steps by which a small squire drifts into idleness and debt; gets into the clutches of the local tradesmen, the Shylocks of Irish country life, and loses the home of his fathers and the land that might have supported him in comfort. His father-in-law, with fewer acres, presents the contrast of the hardworking and prosperous farmer, happily by no means so rare in Ireland as is popularly supposed. The characters are well drawn, especially that of Jane Fallon, the Squireen's wife, the typical wife of the spendthrift, on whom the reckoning always falls most heavily. The style of the book is somewhat rhapsodical, but no one to whom Irish scenery is dear could fail to enjoy the atmosphere of 'The Squireen.' It is filled with the sound of the soft fall of rain, with a moist southwest wind, and dim gray skies, with the purple gloom of the heather and the flash of water everywhere. Life in these boglands has its peculiar charm, though the setting seems, of all others, to fit the tragedies of lives that fail. The alienated homestead of the Squireen is before the eyes of every Irish peasant proprietor, for throughout Ireland, Catholic or Protestant, the local spendthrift, losing his grip on the land, is in every district to point a moral.

A History of Siena. By Langton Douglas. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The Story of Siena and San Gimignano. By Edmund G. Gardner. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Books upon Italy, her history, her saints, her towns, and, above all, her art, are nowadays so frequent that it is impossible for

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the current reviews to keep pace with them. It is true that they are seldom worth serious attention; they are due for the most part simply and solely to the daily increasing facilities for travel, and to the cheapness and excellence of the new methods of reproducing works of art. The text, as a rule, is adequate to explain the illustrations, and to guide the traveller to the chief points of artistic and historic interest in a town. Original thinkers, accurate scholars, interesting writers, are as rare in this as in any subject. Dull, parasitic unscholarly books, here as elsewhere, are the order of the day.

Two recent books, however, do not quite fall under this classification. Dull Mr. Douglas's 'History of Siena' does not, nor does unscholarly Mr. Gardner's 'Story of Siena and San Gimignano.' Neither is remarkable for originality, although Mr. Douglas's pages bristle with pretensions to this quality; neither is really important in any way; but Mr. Douglas, until he touches on art, is very readable, and Mr. Gardner's book is careful and extremely useful.

Except the historical works of original thinkers or agreeable stylists, it would be hard to find a better-told story of a people than Mr. Douglas's account of the rise and fall of Siena. He manages to combine exciting dramatic anecdote with the results of the current historical method, and weaves into one intensely interesting narrative tales of combats, heroism, and romance, as well as solid economic fact and general historical considerations. He makes clear, what Mr. Gardner scarcely touches upon, the determining part which commerce played in the politics of Siena; but he does not make it dull. The defects that are so glaring when he comes to speak of matters which call for a finer æsthetic culture than he seems to possess, or a sincere modesty and unpretentiousness which, in Mr. Gardner's book, take the place of personal appreciation, scarcely make themselves felt in the historical part of Mr. Douglas's work. It is more interesting, deeper, and wider than the parallel section of Mr. Gardner's book.

But the defects of taste to which we have alluded are not wholly absent even here. Where Mr. Gardner is unobtrusively helpful, his companion author is obtrusively boastful. The wide difference in the quality of the two writers is apparent in almost the opening sentences. Mr. Gardner tells us that the books listed at the end of his volume "only represent some of those which his readers will find useful and helpful, or that will supply further information on points too detailed to be dwelt on in a short general history." Mr. Douglas, in the tone of swagger to which we grow accustomed as we read his pages, starts out with saying that the elaborate bibliography he gives is "merely a list of the more important books relating to Siena which the author has used in preparing this work." Wherever he can, Mr. Douglas makes blatant claims to being a scholar, while Mr. Gardner makes claim to nothing except useful, well-considered information. Yet, throughout, Mr. Douglas shows himself merely a journalist—a diligent and interesting one, it must be admitted—but a journalist with much of the jauntiness and self-confidence traditional to that character; while Mr. Gardner, well known as a Dante scholar, shows that he possesses the real student's methods and interests. A comparison of the latter's quiet, solid, sympathetic account of St. Catherine with Mr. Douglas's rhetorical, quasi-medical treatise on her whom he calls "the dyer's daughter of Fontebranda," amply establishes this difference.

It is when treating of art, however, that the contrast between the two volumes becomes most clear. Neither writer is an independent art student; but Mr. Gardner quotes and gives ample credit to his authorities, while Mr. Douglas, although making constant use of their attributions, their historical observations, and their æsthetic standards, quotes them only in a few minor points where he conceives them to have blundered. Mr. Gardner is perhaps a little too catholic in his choice of authorities, but he pretends to no more than approving citation, while Mr. Douglas, of two people writing on a given subject, is significantly apt to quote only the one he disagrees with. Mr. Gardner's admiration for Sodoma may seem to be a sign of a still unpurified taste, but it is at least an accepted tradition, and not so inexcusable as Mr. Douglas's estimate of the provincial and over-elaborate sculptor Marinna as superior in "sense of form" to the great Florentine master of classic form, Luca della Robbia.

Mr. Gardner, in never attempting an independent attribution, is wiser than Mr. Douglas, who seldom departs from the beaten track without going wrong. The fatal touch of art-criticism seems to destroy his power of reading history; the reasons being that the interpretation of pictures as documents requires gifts of quite another order from those shown in Mr. Douglas's diligent ransacking of books. Had his eye for pictures been as expert as his eye for print—and this is necessary, if the critic ventures upon original views in art-history—he would not have found Perugino's influence in every picture with a spacious background, or Sassetta's in an artist so remote from his aims as Bonfigli, nor would he have claimed such purely Umbrian painters as Boccatis and Matteo da Gualdo as adherents of a Sienese master separated from them by at least a century. A sense of quality would assuredly have given him a very different estimate of the important achievements in sculpture and painting of such artists as Vecchietta, Francesco di Giorgio, and the fascinating Neroccio, whom he dismisses in a few contemptuous words. His pretence at discussing the Neo-Byzantine School of Tuscany as the necessary preparation—of course omitted by all other art historians!—for the intelligent enjoyment of the early Sienese masters, is a mere piece of bluff, for his treatment of this theme turns out to consist in repeating, what every one knows, that the Neo-Byzantine artists were miniaturists and workers in mosaic, who had a feeling for color and decoration, and a careful technique. Is it a help to the "intelligent enjoyment" of Duccio to say that he improved on their stiffness and freed himself from their conventionality?

On almost all the much-discussed problems of his subject, Mr. Douglas confines himself to an attitude of mystification. "I cannot fully discuss this interesting question here," "The state of our present knowledge does not entitle me to speak with confidence," are samples of the phrases he uses to evade the difficulties. Although, in the opinion of the present writer, Raphael did not furnish the least scrap of assistance to Pintoricchio in the frescoes of the Cathedral Library, as both Mr. Gardner and Mr. Douglas assume, yet it is interesting to note the form their two statements of the question take. Mr. Gardner (p. 175) says that although Vasari's statement that Raphael furnished the cartoons has been denied by serious historians of Italian Art, yet at present a modified acceptance of Vasari's statement is beginning to gain ground. He then refers the reader to Miss E. March Phillips's monograph on Pintoricchio. Mr. Douglas (p. 394), as usual, says it is impossible for him to discuss the question fully in this place. "I can only express my conviction that Schmarzow's arguments have never been satisfactorily answered. I believe" . . . . And under this rubric follows—Miss Phillips's conclusions! She is quoted on the next page, not apropos of this discussion, but of her general estimate of Pintoricchio.

Mr. Douglas's history, his careful account of the architecture of the Cathedral—here more accurate than Mr. Gardner's—his excellent, although disproportionately long, chapter on Sienese pottery, show clearly that he can do good work in subjects where fineness of taste and delicacy of eye are not needed. In conclusion, we may add the practical advice that Mr. Gardner's book, especially when it shall appear in a smaller volume uniform with the Dent series of "Mediæval Towns," is eminently a book to be read on the spot, a most helpful guide, which takes you consecutively through all the streets and churches of Siena and San Gimignano, while Mr. Douglas's large volume, arranged rather by subjects than by places, can be read with comfort only at home.

French Engravers and Draughtsmen of the Eighteenth Century. By Lady Dilke. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. Large 8vo. Pp. 227.

This book is made up of brief biographical notices, and of anecdotes and quotations, with but little discussion of either the engraving or the drawing of the epoch treated. But in this it is true to its title. The eighteenth century did not produce much engraving or drawing of great importance; but such as it did produce has its interest in connection with the general history of the fine arts. An intelligent account of the character of engraving and drawing at this epoch would, therefore, be of value; but fragmentary notices of the lives of comparatively unimportant men, without some illuminating discussion of the state of the art of the time, and of its relation to that of other times, are not what we should most desire. Nevertheless, Lady Dilke has produced a pleasant book, from which, in connection with her other volumes on 'French Painters' and 'French Architects of the Eighteenth Century,' with their numerous illustrations, a reader may gather a fairly just idea of the fine arts in France during this epoch of mediocre achievement.

French engraving had been brought to a high degree of excellence in the preceding century in the hands of men like Edelinck and Nanteuil. In the supreme art of Nanteuil, graver work in pure line on copper

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reached its highest perfection. At this time the art was in the transition stage from the style of the primitive masters, who aimed at little more than pure delineation with such simple shading, for expression of solid form, as they could manage, to the modern style, in which every quality of color and texture within the possibilities of the process has been attained. This transition was effected chiefly by the school of Flemish engravers who gathered around the painter Rubens, and who sought under his guidance to render, as far as possible, the qualities of his painting. Much in the way of skill in the use of the engraved line to express color and texture was accomplished by these men, among whom the most important were Vorstermans and Pontius; but none of them approached the skill of Nanteuil, which is consummate in its effective and yet wonderfully simple technique.

Among the engravers of whom Lady Dilke writes, several of the earlier ones continued to work in the style of Nanteuil with admirable success. The portrait engravings of Pierre Drevet (1663-1738), after the works of Rigaud and Largillière, are among the most superb examples of pure burin technique that have ever been produced. Lady Dilke (p. 59) quotes Mariette, the engraver and author, as saying that Drevet received from his father "daily lessons in . . . . unwearying patience and conscientious devotion to his exacting art." This discipline is apparent in every work of Drevet's hand, and his splendid technique is made the vehicle of expression to an extent almost equal to that of his illustrious predecessor. Few other engravers of the time show the same brilliant powers. Drevet is said to have been the last representative of the school of pure line, and certainly not many subsequent engravers manifest the same powers and the same conscientious skill, though Doullé (born 1703) and Beauvarlet (born 1733) produced some admirable works with little departure from the pure-line method. But, as Lady Dilke remarks, a certain impatience of the labor involved in such work began to declare itself, and means were sought by which it might be abridged. Gerard Audran (born 1640) had already used the process of etching as a foundation for burin work, and we are told (p. 61) that now it became the aim of some engravers to imitate with the graver the free character of line proper to the etching point. With Doullé and his contemporaries "the pure sincerity of their predecessors was unknown." They resort to makeshifts to save labor, while Wille (born 1717) becomes very artificial, and makes his technique a "witness of skill rather than a means of expression."

It was at this time that the passion for collecting began to take its modern form, and, with the advent of the amateur collector, the modern dealer made his appearance. The dealer at first was himself an engraver, and also a publisher of other men's engravings. Foremost among these early dealers were Mariette and Bassan. Both of these men exercised great authority in matters of taste, and they both had a genuine love for the art; but, of the two, Mariette, we are told (p. 30), engaged in the business of buying and selling prints from an enthusiastic devotion to the art itself, while Bassan foreshadows the more modern dealer, who follows the vocation primarily for the money he can make out of it.

The so-called "gravure d'histoire" was now taking the place of the portrait-engraving that had before prevailed, and the commerce in prints of popular subjects was becoming a thriving industry. In the production of works of this class Laurent Cars (1702-1771) was prolific, and Le Bas (1708-1782), "to whom Diderot assigned the unenviable distinction of having given the death-blow to 'la bonne gravure,' was driven to the employment of expeditious methods in order to deal with the enormous quantity of work that he undertook at a low price." An examination of the plates of Le Bas shows that he made extensive use of the more facile and expeditious process of etching, a practice which soon became general, but his burin handling does not appear to have been otherwise materially changed. The newly established publishers now began to issue prints in extended series, and to engage in the publication of sumptuous illustrated books. The rise of book illustration in the modern sense dates from this time, and we get the "dessinateur et graveur," the forerunner of the modern illustrator. The drawing of these men is commonly mediocre enough, though in some instances it rises to excellence, as in the "Sleeping Child," by Gabriel de Saint-Aubin, reproduced opposite page 139.

In chapter x., Lady Dilke discusses the development of new processes which the growing demand for prints, the commercial spirit of the dealers, and the desire for novelties fostered by the spirit of the time. Engraving was becoming a mechanical industry, and the modern principle of division of labor was applied to it. One man now prepared plates by etching in the subject, while another one finished them with the graver. Engravings "à la manière du crayon," imitations by engraving of the effects of chalk drawings, arose, and the tool called the "roulette," which facilitated this kind of work, was introduced. This soon gave rise to the production of colored prints in imitation of colored chalk drawings; and finally the process "au lavis," an imitation of washed drawings, was perfected. All these matters are touched upon in an interesting manner; but one could wish for a fuller discussion and illustration of them. Very little is said of wood engraving, and the important name of Papillon, who advanced this process considerably in the direction of more elaborate execution, is mentioned but once, and then in a footnote. The closing chapter treats of engravers and the Academy, and recounts the struggles of the engravers to obtain a more equal standing with painters and sculptors than had before been accorded them.

The book is handsomely printed, and the illustrations are of fair quality.

Memoirs of Sir Edward Blount. Edited by Stuart J. Reid. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

These recollections are more interesting than might be anticipated. When a man has never kept a diary, has destroyed all his letters, and waits until his ninety-fourth year before beginning to tell his story, the result is not apt to be very successful. In this case, however, there are certain incidents which leaven the lump. We can dispense with the official letters and documents recording the eminent services of Sir Edward, with the bows and compliments with which he introduces and dismisses the many distinguished men whom he has known, and even with his accounts of the hardships which he underwent during the siege of Paris. But concerning the early history of railway building on the Continent, and especially in France, Sir Edward's reminiscences have a unique value.

Possibly the fact that the Blounts have always been Catholics may have had something to do with Sir Edward's successful career in France. The family was originally of Picardy, but three of its members came over with the Conqueror, two of them remaining. At a tenants' dinner at the seat of the family, in Shropshire, one of them exhibited documentary proofs that his ancestors had been either in the employment of, or tenant farmers under, the Blount family for nearly 800 years.

The author of these memoirs, on leaving school, entered the London office of the Provincial Bank of Ireland, just established as a Catholic institution, in opposition to the National Bank of Ireland, which was of Protestant finance. After a short time he obtained a place in the Home Office, and in 1829 became an attaché of the British Embassy in Paris. In 1831 he left the public service finally, and was for the rest of his life actively employed in Paris as a banker, and as a railway financier and manager.

Seventy years ago the horrors of the custom house were everywhere as frightful as they now are in New York. Passengers, male and female, crossing the Channel, were searched; and at the Belgian frontier Mr. Blount was once deprived of six of his week's supply of seven razors, on the ground that no man could use so many. Some years later he rendered a memorable service to travellers in procuring the abolition of an inveterate nuisance. He was received in his capacity as director of the Austrian Railway, with two of his colleagues, by the Emperor, who pointedly asked what he could do for him. To the disgust of his companions, instead of intimating that decorations would be acceptable, he explained the annoyance to which passengers were subjected by having trains stopped at the frontiers, often in the middle of the night, in order that soldiers might demand passports. Within a fortnight the practice was ended.

In 1836 there were nearly two thousand miles of railway in England, while there were but twenty-five in France. A bill for the construction of seven trunk lines, brought in by the Government in 1838, was rejected by a majority of three to one. Mr. Blount, however, went to M. Dufaure, Minister of Public Works, and asked for leave to build a line from Paris to Rouen with English capital. It was finally arranged that if £600,000 could be raised in England, and a like sum in France, the Government would guarantee an equal amount. The arrangement was carried out in 1840, and in 1843 the road was opened. It was laid out by English engineers, built by English contractors—Brassey and Mackenzie—and operated by English mechanics. Even now the English and not the French rule of

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the road is followed on the railways of France.

This road was the precursor of many others, in which Mr. Blount was interested, notably the Western of France Railway. Of this line he was chairman for thirty years, and might still be, but for a violent "Jingo" speech made by him at a time when the relations between England and France were strained. He could have retained his position, but to have done so would have caused the passage of a law requiring all railway directors thereafter elected to have the approval of the Government. This would have meant the exclusion of many worthy men who had been partisans of former régimes—Imperialists, Orleanists, etc.—who could not afford to lose their salaries, and Sir Edward very honorably yielded. From the military point of view it must be said that it was intolerable to have a great French railway managed by a citizen of a country with which war was possible, especially when that citizen had proclaimed himself a Jingo of the Jingoes.

Many incidents of the revolutions of 1830 and of 1848 are here detailed, and make interesting reading. These fields, however, have been well covered by many others, and the author's part, spirited and even heroic as it was, has rather a personal than an historical importance. His tribute to Mr. Brassey is enthusiastic, and brings out the splendid generosity of that great captain of industry. In spite of his colossal enterprises, he told Mr. Blount that his net profit, after deducting all losses, was about 3 per cent. upon all that he had done. Mr. Blount knew well the statesmen of the Second Empire, and his estimates of them deserve attention. His book might have been a great deal better; but it has merit.

A History of the Babylonians and Assyrians. By George Stephen Goodspeed, Ph.D., Professor of Ancient History in the University of Chicago. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. xiii., 422.

This volume continues the Historical Series for Bible Students edited by Professors Kent and Sanders of Yale University, and in general maintains the same high standard represented by Kent's and Riggs's volumes on the history of the Hebrew and Jewish people. It is the best condensed history of Babylonia and Assyria yet published. It is well furnished at the close with a chronological list, bibliography, references, and an index of names and subjects, but of maps there is only one, at the commencement, and that leaves much to be desired. We notice the persistence of a curiously perverse blunder, repeated in map after map of Babylonia since the time of Delitzsch's 'Wo lag das Paradies.' In Delitzsch's map, by some accident, the ancient city of Eridu was placed on the east side of the Euphrates, below the Shatt en-Nil. The site of Eridu is well known. It lies to the west of the Euphrates, a little above the junction of the Shatt en-Nil with that river. The ancient Ur is also misplaced in this map, and canals are thrown in here and there on general principles. In short, it is very unsatisfactory, and not worthy of the excellent little volume to which it is prefixed.

Dr. Goodspeed still holds to the earlier date of Sargon, 3800 B. C., which, of course, throws his whole chronology back a thousand years; but his general treatment of the earlier periods of Babylonian history is noticeably conservative. On the Sumerian question he displays the same cautious attitude: "The facts are not decisive, and the fundamental questions must await final adjudication till a time when either new documents for philological investigation are discovered, or light is obtained from other than linguistic sources" (p. 30).

In accounting for the temporary downfall of the Assyrian empire, immediately after the campaigns of Tiglath Pileser I., 1100 B. C., Dr. Goodspeed states very effectively a fact which we have not seen presented in former histories, namely, that "a series of mighty movements of peoples took place in the world without, which swept away Assyria's authority over her provincial districts, encroached upon her territory, threw Babylonia into civil war, paralyzed all foreign trade, and afforded opportunity for the consolidation of rival powers on the borders of both nations" (pp. 179, 180). He might have added, although it is not necessarily within the scope of his work, that it was this same movement, affecting the whole civilized world of the period, which overturned the Mykenæan civilization in Greece and Crete.

It is probably unavoidable, in writing history, to indulge in speculation. Now the Assyrian and Babylonian documents which have come down to us are in general either dry records of facts, one-sided accounts of the campaigns and other achievements of kings, or commercial documents. Nothing exists to show us with any certainty the inner motives of movements and events. A king or dynasty falls and a successor takes the throne; we know the facts and nothing more. Professor Goodspeed enters into speculations as to the causes of these changes, speculations as to conflicts between royal and priestly power and the like, which are interesting, but rest on no secure basis. His speculations only reveal to us more clearly the limitations of our present knowledge in regard to the inner history of Babylonia and Assyria. He also shows a tendency in not a few instances to reverse the verdict of former writers, rehabilitating sovereigns condemned by them and vice-versa. This is notably the case with Esarhaddon of Assyria and Nebuchadnezzar the Great of Babylon, the latter of whom especially he would fain remove from his present eminence as one of the greatest kings of antiquity. On the other hand, the much-abused Sennacherib meets here with high commendation.

The volume is interestingly written, and, at the same time, Professor Goodspeed has succeeded in condensing a large amount of information in a small space.

Demetrius on Style. With introduction, translation, facsimiles, etc. By W. Rhys Roberts, Litt. D. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Professor Roberts presents in the volume before us the third part of his chosen task in the elucidation of the most important Greek material on the subject of Rhetoric and Literary Criticism. The three Literary Letters of Dionysius of Halicarnassus appeared a year ago, and the treatise of Longinus on the Sublime in 1899. There is yet to come a critical and annotated edition of the Rhetoric of Aristotle and a general History of Greek Literary Criticism, the former of which might seem scarcely necessary within a generation of the voluminous work of E. M. Cope, edited by Sandys in 1877, and reinforced since that date by a fair supply of periodical literature in various tongues, accessible to most of those who care to make a special study of Aristotle's great work. As to the authorship and date of the work in hand, Mr. Roberts claims no ability to solve the problem which has baffled so many others. The author was certainly not Demetrius of Phalerum, and it is far from certain that he was any one of the many who bore that name. As to date, the probabilities lie within a century of the beginning of the Christian era, before or after. The fact that the treatise is not mentioned by Quintilian might fairly be taken as strengthening the hypothesis of a late date, since the common-sense views presented are such as would naturally have appealed to Quintilian, and the work could hardly have been published much in advance of his time without coming to his attention in the wide reading which preceded and accompanied the composition of the *Institutio Oratoria.* The translation does not, of course, elude all the difficulties which such a subject involves, especially when it comes to dealing with illustrations. For example: "Force of style will also mark a sentence of this kind: 'He turned upside down in his folly and his impiety too, things sacred and things holy too.'" The repetition of the word *too*, and its position, represent the external form of the Greek closely enough, but to call such a form forcible when transferred to the English is manifestly absurd. There are about fifty pages of notes, a good glossary of technical terms, a bibliography, and indices. It is noticeable that the bibliography contains no entries in the English language except two references to articles in the *Classical Review* contributed by Professor Roberts himself in the course of his preparation of this volume.

Saintsbury, in the first volume of his 'History of Criticism,' gives this treatise rather scant and unsatisfactory notice. The best he has to say for it is that the author was "not far from the kingdom." Professor Roberts is justified in calling it a great aid to the study of Greek literature on the more formal side, and in hoping to see it recognized as having a distinct relation to the theory and practice of English composition. If his edition shall further its use toward that end, the labor of preparation will have been well worth while.

A History of German Literature. By John G. Robertson, Lecturer in the University of Strassburg. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902. Pp. 635.

It may be doubted whether manuals of literature, such as Dr. Robertson has compiled in this volume, are of real value either for the scholar or for the general public. To the student they give no new light, and the layman receives no inspiration from them. Their principal use seems to consist in recording from time to time, for the benefit of the librarian and the

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bibliographer, the accretions to a given literature, both in scientific investigation and in artistic production. With these qualifications as to its intrinsic value, it should be said that Dr. Robertson's book is worthy of genuine praise. It is the result of most conscientious study and very wide reading; is written without any personal bias, and in a most sympathetic spirit; avoids all fancifulness and flippancy; and strives with remarkable success for completeness of information as to names, dates, synopses of books, and similar detail.

Furthermore, this is probably the first book of its kind (and herein lies its chief interest from the scholarly point of view) which considers German literature in its relation to other European literatures—above all, French and English; and one cannot help wishing that it might have been possible for Dr. Robertson to make this the leading feature of his work. The luminous comparison which, in the introduction, he draws between the fundamental characteristics of what Madame de Staël called "la littérature du nord" and "la littérature du midi," his penetrating analysis of the causes which have made the historical development of German culture so widely different from that of the other nations of Europe, as well as numerous sidelights of a similar sort scattered throughout the book, show that he was admirably equipped for such a task. Let us hope that he has in store for us a treatise which will bring out in clear and strong outline the history of German literature as affected by intellectual and artistic influences emanating from other countries. By writing such a book, he will do a great service to literary history.

Meanwhile, it would be ungrateful not to acknowledge that this manual is a thoroughly trustworthy Baedeker for the familiar routes in German literature, superseding once for all the sorry lot of dilettanteish compilations which have served as guide-books in this domain during the last generation. This in itself is a service not to be underestimated. That, in addition to this, there is a literary flavor to the book, which clearly asserts itself whenever the narrative is not burdened with bibliographical detail, may be gathered from the following passage from the chapter on Gottfried von Strassburg's 'Tristan':

"One of the secrets of Gottfried's mastery as a love-poet is his unrelenting earnestness; indeed, the earnestness that lies over *Tristan* merges almost into melancholy. No gleam of humor relieves the tragedy of the story, no touch of frivolity: *Tristan* is the most serious of all the court epics. We may possibly be doing Gottfried's lost model an injustice in giving the German poet credit for those elements in *Tristan* which entitle it to be regarded as great poetry; but the warmth and the heartfelt sincerity of the German epic are foreign to the French temperament, as far, at least, as that temperament is expressed in French mediæval literature. Gottfried's conception of love is essentially Germanic; it is the love of Romeo and Juliet, the love that inspires Goethe's lyrics and the poetry of German Romanticism."

Modern Practical Joinery: A Treatise on the Practice of Joiner's Work by Hand and Machine for the Use of Apprentices, Workmen and Builders, etc. By George Ellis. With about 1,000 clear and practical illustrations. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xii., 379. $5.00.

Measured Drawings of Old Oak English Furniture; also, of some Remains of Architectural Woodwork, Plasterwork, Metalwork, Glazing, etc. By John Weymouth Hurrell. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. $15.00.

Here are two books which deal with woodwork in building, but of the finer kind, such as we call joinery or cabinet-work, rather than carpentry on a large scale. In a curious way the two books are the complement each of the other. The first-named is as utilitarian as it can be made, the second is devoted exclusively to refinements of design.

The treatise on joinery, by Mr. George Ellis, takes up the subject of woodworking by hand at the very beginning, and deals with the tools employed (chapter ii.), then with the workshop appliances, as work-benches, mitre-blocks, grindstones, and the rest, and with the ordinary practice of the workshop, planing and mortising, dovetailing and wedging, occupying with these subjects chapters iii. and iv. The making of joints is very properly treated at length and with minute particularity, and has a whole chapter devoted to it. Coming, then, to more specified practice, chapter vi. is devoted to doors and gates, chapter vii. to door frames and the like, chapters viii. and ix. to windows, shutters, and blinds; and in this manner the whole field of the finer woodworking for buildings is passed in review. Few items are overlooked, few requirements fail to be stated; a chapter is devoted to foreman's work and another to the fixing or putting into place of joiner's work, as when the trim, as we have it in America, is put up in a house where it belongs; and the two chapters at the end are devoted to timber, with a description of different woods.

In the attempt to cover the whole ground, thirty pages are devoted to stairbuilding; and here more than elsewhere there is an obvious brevity of treatment which may be thought inadequate, for the question of stairbuilding is one to which volumes bigger than this one have been devoted, and without exhausting the subject. However, what is told is the right thing to say. The author has not failed to put down interesting things because he had not much space within which to expatiate. He offers a good and tolerably complete list of the "technical terms used in stairbuilding and handrailing," and gives useful hints among his "general remarks," as where he reminds the builder that "dividing landings by a single step should be avoided, as these prove traps for the unwary." That is a rule which ought to be insisted on in the United States, for it is a common trick with us to divide what Englishmen call generally a halfpace, that is, a platform which crosses two flights of stairs, one arriving and the other departing from it on the upward course, and the two side by side and parallel. Such a landing cut in halves, making of it two square platforms, provides, as indeed our author says, a trap for every one who does not know the staircase intimately and finds it not brilliantly lighted up. If a complete building law were ever to be undertaken, the prohibition of such mischievous devices as that might well form a by-law apart.

As to the book under consideration, no attempt is made to present novel or even modern designs, or to preserve a common style of design, or yet to present designs of intelligence or of artistic merit. The simple British ways of shaping a window-frame with arched head, and a similar frame but with a square head; the obvious and everyday fashion of making a door and building its casing and hanging it by hinges; the century-old plans of building up stairs by means of glued blocks and sprung mouldings, are all accepted as matters of course, without comment and without criticism. The author's business is merely to show the workman how these things are to be done, and he does not abandon this plan of teaching the workshop methods only, except for an occasional comment on matters of convenience and inconvenience, or as to the greater or less strength and durability of a material or of the mechanical process.

The text is abundantly supplied with illustrations, all of them drawn in an intelligent way in plain black lines, and there are a few folding plates provided for the combined display of all the parts of the complicated structure, as a writing table with a multiplicity of drawers, or a "circle sash frame" with all its details. There is a fairly complete index, and a glossary of terms which seems inadequate in that the definitions are so very brief that only a practised mechanic would understand them. Such definitions may serve to settle a dispute between two technicians, but not to instruct an outsider. Such brevity leads also to error, as, for instance, "Gothic Arch. A pointed arch. These were solely used in the architecture of the Middle Ages"; a definition which contains or implies two or three errors. So "Grating. A wood lattice used to protect gutters from snow," as if there were no other gratings in use in Great Britain than in that one connection. The list of terms used in stairbuilding and given in chapter xv. is, however, to be considered with the glossary proper; and the two may be taken as forming in reality one dictionary of terms.

The book is bound or cased in brown buckram of a pleasant color, and this piece of work seems to be strongly done—not at all in the curiously feeble way in which cloth cases are so commonly put upon English books. The volume will stand workshop wear for several years.

Mr. Hurrell's book consists of a hundred and ten plates, with a brief preface, a classified list of the "subjects of the plates," and nothing else whatever. This table or list sets forth that Plates 1 to 13 with 19 and 20 are devoted to Cabinets, while Ironwork has three plates and Brasswork three, Leaded Lights two, and an ornamental Lead Cistern one (Plate 90). There are included among the ceilings, to which subject six pages are devoted, some of plaster, and indeed there are only two of oak. It may be said, then, that three-fourths of the book is devoted to the details of joiner's work with elaborate carving in oak, all of the Elizabethan and Jacobean periods, and that one-fourth is devoted to metalwork, plasterwork, and the rest, of the same period. The Preface states the author's purpose to be the giving of

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accurate measurements and careful delineation to scale without the aid of pictorial effect; and its purpose has been kept steadily in view. In fact, exception might be taken to the difficulty one finds in grasping readily the significance of the details which are crowded together upon a given page. Even the practised student may be annoyed somewhat and at least made impatient by the lack of a little freehand drawing in the corner, which would show him the general effect of the armchair or cupboard; for even such a student must take time and thinking to construct a mental image of the completed piece—and after all it is a great help to know in advance what the completed piece is like. No other such deficiency can be urged. The drawings have all the appearance of exactitude, and although it has been impracticable to point out in all cases which mouldings are planted-on and which are carved in the solid, because that cannot be ascertained in every case and because also it does not affect the existing design, yet the modern artist is free to follow the more thorough or the slighter method as he may prefer.

Attention must be called to this fact, that the author has gone, for his examples, to the most interesting buildings and to the most famous collections of old furniture in England. Bramhall and Little Moreton Hall in Cheshire, Chetham's College in Manchester, Plasmawr in Conway in Wales, and an old house which stood at Leek in Staffordshire until it was pulled down in 1897, have furnished much of his material.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anthony, Susan B., and Harper, Ida H. The History of Woman Suffrage. Vol. IV. Rochester: Susan B. Anthony.

Dorman, M. R. P. A History of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century. Vol. I. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Euripides. Translated into English Rhyming Verse by Gilbert Murray. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Hazell's Annual for 1903. Edited by W. Palmer. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.

Hewitt, J. F. History and Chronology of the Myth-Making Age. London: James Parker & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.

Hulbert, A. B. Braddock's Road, and Three Relative Papers. (Historic Highways of America, vol. iv.) Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.

Jerrold, Walter. The Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray; The Irish Sketch Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Krauch, C. The Testing of Chemical Reagents for Purity. Translated by J. A. Williamson and L. W. Dupré. London: Maclaren & Sons; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.

Lane, M. A. L. Triumphs of Science. (Youth's Companion Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co.

Linn, W. A. Horace Greeley. (Appleton's Series of Historic Lives.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Maclaren, Ian. Our Neighbors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Magnus, Laurie. Introduction to Poetry. E. P. Dutton & Co. 60 cents.

McChesney, Dora G. Cornet Strong of Ireton's Horse. John Lane.

Myer, Lucy R. Mary North. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Rayner, Emma. Handicapped among the Free. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Segonzac, Mis de. Voyages au Maroc (1899-1901). Paris: Armand Colin. 20 fr.

Social Germany in Luther's Time: Being the Memoirs of Bartholomew Sastrow. Translated by A. D. Vandam. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.

Townsend, Charles. The Mahoney Million. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.

Van Middeldyk, R. A. The History of Puerto Rico. Edited by M. G. Brumbaugh. (The Expansion of the Republic Series.) D. Appleton & Co.

Vedder, H. C. The Baptists. (The Story of the Churches.) Baker & Taylor Co. $1.

Walsh, C. M. The Fundamental Problem in Monetary Science. Macmillan. $1.50.

Winthrop, W. Y. A 20th-Century Cinderella. Abbey Press.

A new novel by W. E. Norris, author of those truly great novels "Matrimony" and "No New Thing."

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Second Series, Volume 9. The Travels of Pedro Teixeira, with his "Kings of Hermuz," and extracts from his "Kings of Persia." Translated and annotated by W. F. Sinclair, Bombay Civil Service, with further notes and introduction by D. Ferguson, pp. cvii.-292. London, 1902. 8o: Vols 10 and 11 are in the press. Vol. 10. The Portuguese Expedition to Abyssinia in 1541, as narrated by Castanhoso and Bermudez. Edited by R. S. Whiteway, late I.C.S., London, 1902. 8o. Vol. 11. The Principall Navigations of the English Nation. By Richard Hakluyt, 1598-1600. Vol. 1. Edited by Sir Clements Markham, K.C.B., and C. R. Beazley, London, 1902. 8o. A limited number of copies of this edition of Hakluyt will be on sale to the public. BASIL H. SOULSBY, F.R.G.S., Map Room, British Museum, London, Hon. Sec.

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